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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN THE CARDIAC CYCLE OF MAN*

BY

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In studying the dynamics of the heart beat, the relationship between electrical and mechanical events in the cardiac cycle has been of fundamental importance. The basic concepts of this relationship have been defined by Lewis (1925) and Wiggers (1923) and their co-workers. Sir Thomas Lewis provided indirect information on these events in the right auricle of man. Animal experiments, supplemented by such indirect information as could be obtained from venous and arterial pulse wave tracings, recording of heart sounds, etc., in man were used by Wiggers to anticipate the probable normal sequence of events in the cardiac cycle.

More precise information may now be obtained using the method of right heart catheterization. With direct measurements from within the right heart chambers and pulmonary artery, coupled with peripheral arterial pulse wave and electrocardiographic recordings, the normal course of electrical and mechanical events may be more clearly defined in man and abnormalities in contraction and conduction of the diseased heart may be further elucidated.

The data thus obtained will supplement the results obtained by many other investigators and will be analysed and discussed in the light of their studies.

METHOD OF STUDY

In this study recordings of blood pressures in the auricle, ventricle, pulmonary artery, and brachial artery were made simultaneously with the electrocardiogram. The method of catheterization of the right heart, introduction of the indwelling arterial

needle, and recording of pressures has been previously described (Cournand and Ranges, 1941, Cournand *et al*, 1944, and Bloomfield *et al*, 1946). In some instances a double lumen catheter was used (Cournand *et al*, 1945), permitting the simultaneous recording of pressures in the right auricle and ventricle or the right ventricle and pulmonary artery. In order to obtain satisfactory records of these pressures, manometers of varying sensitivities were used. Only the records that permitted the exact determination of the onset of rise of pressure in the right heart or in the arteries were used. The electrocardiograph was of the string galvanometer type and tracings were usually made on standard lead II. The speed of the camera could be varied from 12.5 to 50 mm a second, permitting time intervals to be estimated correctly to within 0.010 sec. It has been shown repeatedly that no parallax exists between the light beams of the manometers and the electrocardiograph. A method for determining the time lag in mechanical transmission of an impulse through the catheter at 37° C has been previously described (Cournand *et al*, 1946), and on repeated determinations was found to be 0.010 sec. This applies to the initial pressure rise only. In analysing the records, a correction was therefore made by subtracting 0.010 sec from the measured values of the time intervals between the beginning of electrical and the beginning of mechanical events. In the present state of recording blood pressures in the right heart it is possible to determine exactly the point at which an initial pressure rise takes place. Because there is great uncertainty as to the accuracy of the records during the period of decline of pressure, analysis of the pressure curves during diastole was not attempted.

* This work was supported by a grant from the Commonwealth Fund with additional aid from the Life Insurance Medical Research Fund.

† French Government Research Fellow in Medicine.

The following measurements were made in analysing the records and the following symbols will be used in presenting the data

Beginning of the P wave of the electrocardiogram	P
Beginning of the Q wave of the electrocardiogram, or R, if Q is absent	Q
Beginning of auricular systole, marked by an ascension of the intra auricular pressure wave near the end of the diastolic period	At _s
Beginning of right ventricular systole, occurring at the end of diastole when the curve shows a steep rise	RV _s
Beginning of ejection in the pulmonary artery, marked by the rise of pressure in the artery, at the end of the descending diastolic curve	PA _s
Beginning of the systolic pressure rise in the brachial artery at the end of the descending diastolic curve	BA _s
Beginning of the systolic pressure rise in the femoral artery at the end of the descending diastolic curve	FA _s

The material for study was selected by analysis of all the records that had been obtained in the course of several years from normal subjects, children with congenital heart disease, and a variety of patients with cardiac or pulmonary disease

1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN ADULTS WITH ESSENTIALLY NORMAL CIRCULATION

In Table I will be found the average figures relating electrical and mechanical events in subjects with essentially normal circulation. Representative normal tracings are illustrated in Fig 1 and 3

(a) The average time interval between the beginning of the P wave and the beginning of the auricular systole (P-At_s) was 0.090 sec in 16 cases. This interval is somewhat less than that of 0.110 sec, found previously in 8 adult subjects with normal hearts by Cournand *et al* (1946). Lewis (1925) has previously described the following relationship in dogs: "The upstroke of P precedes the curve of shortening in the right auricular appendage, in six dogs, by from 0.024 to 0.043 sec." The above values are about one third of what was found in normal adults in this study. Lewis also states that

in man, "the upstroke of P precedes the upstroke of 'a' in the human jugular curve by from 0.100 to 0.150 sec."

In order to evaluate the pulse wave velocity in the large veins, tracings were taken in some of the present studies as the catheter was progressively withdrawn from the right auricle to the axillary region. Although such tracings are few, figures indicate that the pulse wave velocity in the undistended large veins of normal man progresses at approximately 2.5 metres a second. Assuming an average distance of 10 cm from the right auricle to the bulb of the right jugular vein, approximately 0.040 sec should be added to figures obtained by the catheterization technique in order to compare them with Lewis' figures in man.

(b) The average time interval between the beginning of Q and the beginning of the right ventricular systole (Q-RV_s) was 0.075 sec in 30 cases. Lewis (1925) states that, "the beginning of the initial ventricular deflection usually precedes the onset of ventricular contraction, as estimated from myocardiograms from the front of the ventricle in six dogs, by from 0.020 to 0.038 of a second." Kahn *et al* (quoted by Wiggers, 1923), recording pressures by means of a needle in the right ventricle of dogs simultaneously with an electrocardiogram, found that the time interval from Q to the rise of pressure

TABLE I
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN ADULTS WITH ESSENTIALLY NORMAL CIRCULATION

Heart rate per minute	Average of 30 cases	80	—
P-R interval, sec	Average of 30 cases	0.160	—
QRS interval, sec	Average of 30 cases	0.080	—
Q-BA _s interval, sec	Average of 30 cases	0.160	0.140-0.190
P-At _s interval, sec	Average of 16 cases	0.090	0.050-0.120
Q-RV _s interval, sec	Average of 30 cases	0.075	0.060-0.100
	Average of 15 cases*	0.072	—
Q-PA _s interval, sec.	Average of 15 cases*	0.085	0.070-0.100
End diastolic pressure in			
Right ventricle, mm Hg	Average of 15 cases*	3.0	—
Pulmonary artery, mm Hg		8.0	—
Duration of isometric contraction of right ventricle, sec	Average of 15 cases*	0.013	0.010-0.020

* The same 15 cases were used to obtain these values

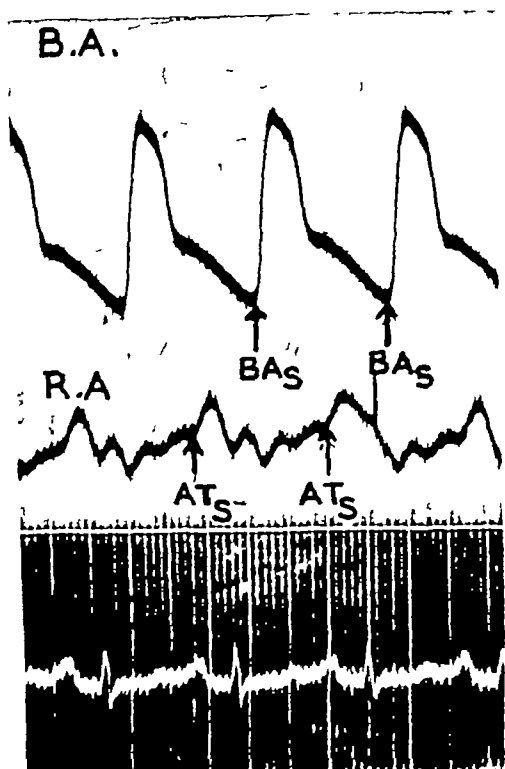


FIG 1.—Record illustrating normal electrical-mechanical time intervals in an adult subject. From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A) and the right atrium (R A) and electrocardiogram lead II. $P-AT_s = 0.080$ sec. $Q-BA_s = 0.160$ sec. In this and all other records the distance between vertical lines is equal to 0.040 sec.

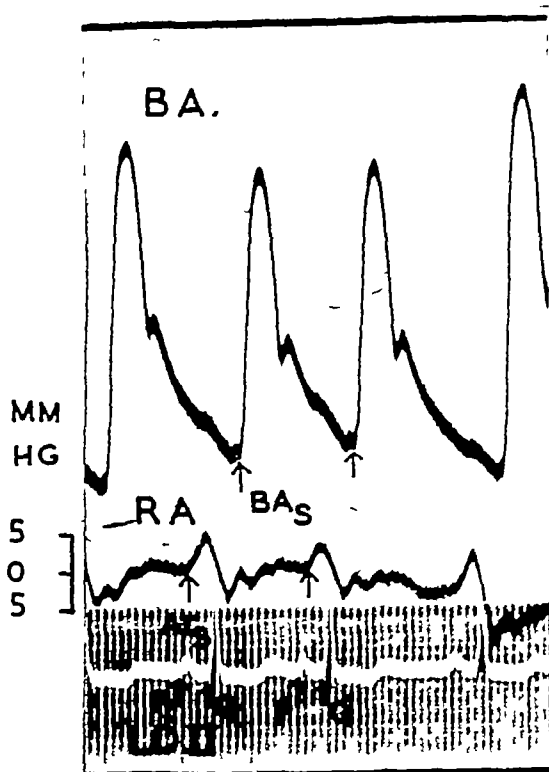


FIG 2.—Record illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with auricular premature contractions. From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A), the right atrium (R.A.), and electrocardiogram lead II. P' and Q' correspond to the premature beat.

was from 0.031 to 0.035 sec. Garten (quoted by Wiggers, 1923), using an electrical manometer, found approximately the same interval—0.030 to 0.045 sec. An analysis of a tracing of Wiggers (1928) shows the same interval to be 0.040 sec. These figures in dogs are about one half of the values found in man in the present study. In an analysis of the time interval between the beginning of the electrical ventricular complex and the c wave in jugular tracings of man, Lewis states that the upstroke of R precedes the upstroke of c in the human jugular by from 0.100 to 0.150 of a second. Miller and White (1941) found an identical value for the Q-c interval in man. Assuming that the c wave corresponds to the beginning of the mechanical contraction in the right ventricle and subtracting 0.040 sec for its transmission to the jugular, the figures compare well with the Q-RV_s time as measured directly.

(c) The average time interval between the begin-

ning of Q and the beginning of the pulmonary artery systole (Q-PA_s) was 0.085 sec. Using this time interval, it is possible to measure the duration of the isometric contraction of the right ventricle, i.e. the time required to raise the pressure from the end diastolic level in the right ventricle to the end diastolic level in the pulmonary artery. This time is calculated by subtracting the value of Q-RV_s from Q-PA_s. In 15 cases where both right ventricle and pulmonary artery pressures have been measured, the value for this interval was 0.013 sec. A tracing of simultaneous pulmonary artery and right ventricular pressures, taken with a double lumen catheter (Fig 3), demonstrates the short duration (0.010 sec) of the isometric contraction in a normal subject. In the 15 cases studied, the average pressure values were, respectively, 3 mm Hg for the end diastolic pressure in the ventricle and 8 mm Hg for the end diastolic pressure in the pulmonary artery. A period

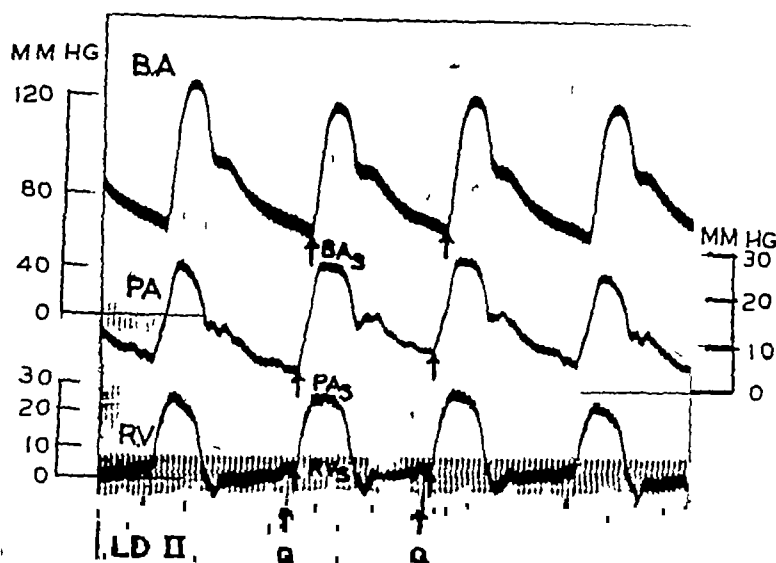


FIG 3—Record illustrating normal electrical mechanical time intervals in an adult subject

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (BA), the pulmonary artery (PA), the right ventricle (RV), and the electrocardiogram lead II. The intracardiac blood pressure tracings were taken simultaneously with a double lumen catheter.

Note that the slope of the ascending pressure curves in the right ventricle and pulmonary artery do not exactly coincide. This may represent a genuine difference or be a manifestation of hysteresis in the recording. Regardless of the interpretation given to this difference, it has no bearing upon the choice of the exact site of the initial rise in pressure.

$Q-RV_s = 0.080$ sec

$Q-PA_s = 0.090$ sec

$Q-BA_s = 0.160$ sec

The duration of isometric contraction is 0.010 sec

of 0.013 sec was therefore necessary to raise the pressure in the right ventricle 5 mm Hg above the initial level in order to open the pulmonary valves.

(d) The average time interval between the beginning of Q and the beginning of brachial artery systole ($Q-BA_s$) was found to be 0.160 sec in 30 cases. Assuming that the pulse wave velocity does not vary greatly, this time interval is probably valuable in assessing indirectly the duration of isometric contraction of the left ventricle. By simultaneous registration of heart sounds, subclavian pulse, and the electrocardiogram in man, Wiggers (1944) estimated the duration of isometric contraction in the left ventricle to be from 0.040 to 0.060 sec. Katz and Feil (1923) found figures with a somewhat greater range, 0.024 to 0.089 sec. With an average duration of isometric contraction of the left ventricle of 0.050 sec, 0.110 sec would be required for the pulse wave to be transmitted to the brachial artery. This corresponds approximately to a pulse wave velocity of 5 metres a second. Previously published values for the time interval between the

beginning of Q and the onset of pressure rise in the more proximal arteries will be found in Table II.

2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN CHILDREN WITH CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

In Table III will be found the average figures in children whose ages range from 5 months to 16 years. On the whole, the intervals were shorter than in normal adults.

(a) The average $P-AT_s$ time interval was 0.060 sec in 16 cases. In a previously reported case of a child 8 years of age with tetralogy of Fallot, a value of 0.055 sec was found, Cournand *et al.*, 1946. The question arose as to whether the $P-AT_s$ time varies with the age of the subjects. In general it was found that the younger the child the shorter the $P-AT_s$ time although the correlation did not appear to be extremely close. In Fig 4 is illustrated the $P-AT_s$ time interval in a child of 3. In general, the nature of the congenital disease did not appear to exert a great influence on this time interval. In two

TABLE II

PREVIOUSLY PUBLISHED VALUES FOR THE TIME INTERVAL BETWEEN THE BEGINNING OF Q AND THE ONSET OF ARTERIAL PRESSURE RISE (IN SECONDS)

Author	Interval studied	Range	Average
Nichol (1933)	Q to rise of pressure in subclavian artery	0 119-0 166	0 135
Wolferth <i>et al</i> (1935)	Q to rise of pressure in carotid artery	0 090-0 150	0 111
Katz <i>et al</i> (1935)	Q to rise of pressure in subclavian artery	0 100-0 160	0 120
Battro <i>et al</i> (1936)	Q to rise of pressure in carotid artery	0 060-0 120	—
Castex <i>et al</i> (1941)	Q to rise of pressure in carotid artery	0 080-0 160	0 120
Kossmann <i>et al</i> (1947)	Q to rise of pressure in carotid artery	0 131-0 148	0 139
Present study (1948)	Q to rise of pressure in brachial artery	0 140-0 190	0 160

TABLE III

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN CHILDREN WITH CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

Heart rate per minute	Average of 23 cases	109	—
PR interval, sec	Average of 23 cases	0 140	—
QRS interval, sec	Average of 23 cases	0 060	—
Q-BA ₂ interval, sec	Average of 23 cases	0 150	0 140-0 190
P-AT ₂ interval, sec	Average of 16 cases	0 060	0 030-0 090
Q-RV ₂ interval, sec	Average of 23 cases	0 058	0 040-0 100
	Average of 12 cases*	0 056	—
Q-PA ₂ interval, sec	Average of 12 cases*	0 079	0 050-0 110
End diastolic pressure in			
Right ventricle, mm Hg	Average of 12 cases*	5 0	—
Pulmonary artery, mm Hg		18 0	—
Duration of isometric contraction of right ventricle, sec	Average of 12 cases*	0 023	0 010-0 030

* The same 12 cases were used to obtain these values

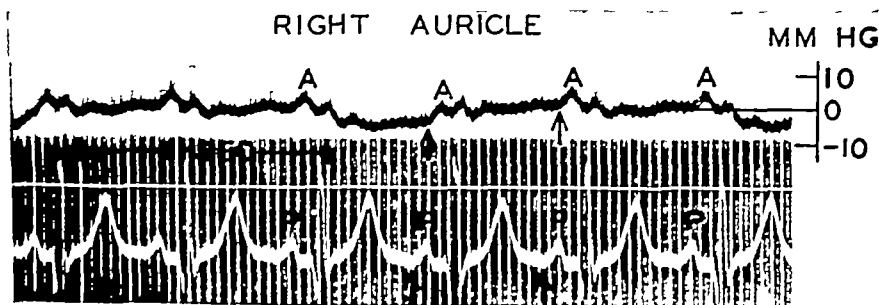


FIG 4 —Record illustrating electrical mechanical time intervals in a child of 3 years with congenital heart disease

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the right atrium and electrocardiogram lead II. The electrocardiographic standardization is 1 millivolt = 2 centimetres

cases of interauricular septal defect the P-AT₂ times in the right and in the left auricles were identical, i.e. 0 060 sec

(b) The average Q-RV₂ time interval, extending from the initial deflection of the QRS complex to the beginning of the right ventricular systole was 0 058 sec in 23 cases. No significant relationship

could be found between this time interval and the nature of the defect or the age of the subject. It is, however, important to note that in all types of congenital defects, even in the cases with hypertrophy and dilatation of the right ventricle, the duration of Q-RV₂ was never greater than in normal adults. In one case of interventricular septal defect the

$Q-V_s$ time intervals were the same in the right and in the left ventricle, i.e. 0.070 sec (Fig 5)

For lack of knowledge of the exact onset of the initial electrical deflection corresponding to activation in each of the four separate chambers of the heart, no conclusion can be drawn from the figures given in this and the previous section as to the spread of excitation and beginning of contraction in each chamber

(c) The average $Q-PA_s$ time interval was 0.079 sec in 12 cases. The difference between this figure and the $Q-RV_s$ time interval in these 12 cases, represented an average duration of isometric contraction in the right ventricle of 0.023 sec, with a range of 0.010 to 0.030 sec. Since the average pressure values at the end of diastole in the right ventricle and in the pulmonary artery were 5 mm Hg and 18 mm Hg respectively, this time interval (0.023 sec) was required to raise the pressure in the right ventricle by 13 mm Hg. This increase in the duration of isometric contraction was therefore due to hypertension in the lesser circulation. In a case of patent ductus arteriosus studied before and after ligation a change in the duration of isometric

contraction was noted. As seen in Table IV, 0.030 sec was required to raise the pressure in the right ventricle 36 mm Hg before operation. After ligation the duration of isometric contraction was reduced to 0.010 sec for a pressure rise in the right ventricle from 1 to 5 mm Hg.

(d) The average $Q-BA_s$ time was 0.150 sec in 23 cases. This figure is almost identical with that found in adults, although the distance between the heart and the peripheral artery is obviously less. If one assumes that the time of isometric contraction in the left ventricle is approximately the same in children as in adults, then the pulse wave velocity must be much slower in children. This finding is not unexpected because of the greater deformability of the arterial walls in young subjects.

3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN ADULT PATIENTS WITH CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE

(a) Normal Sinus Rhythm with no Conduction Abnormalities

In Table V will be found the average figures relating electrical and mechanical events in a group

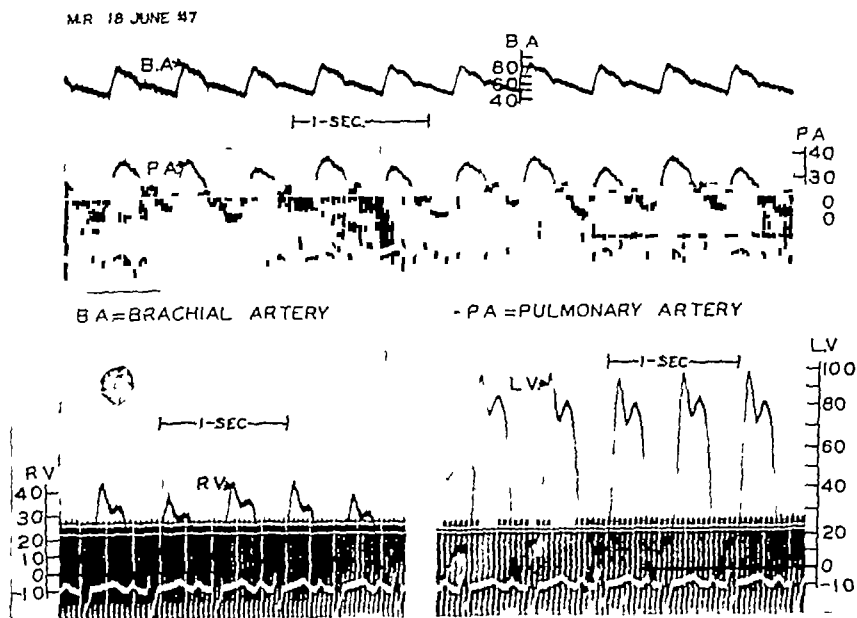


FIG 5—Records illustrating electrical mechanical events in a case with interventricular septal defect

Upper row from top to bottom blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B.A.) and the pulmonary artery (P.A.). Lower row at left, blood pressure tracing in the right ventricle (RV), at right, blood pressure tracing in the left ventricle (LV). Note that the tracings in the ventricles may show some evidence of overshooting.

$Q-RV_s = 0.070$ sec $Q-PA_s = 0.080$ sec $Q-LV_s = 0.070$ sec $Q-BA_s = 0.150$ sec

RV = Right ventricle LV = Left ventricle

All pressures in mm Hg Electrocardiogram, lead II

TABLE IV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS BEFORE AND AFTER LIGATION IN A CASE OF PATENT DUCTUS ARTERIOSUS

	Before ligation	After ligation
Q-RV _s interval, sec	0 060	0 050
Q-PA _s interval, sec	0 090	0 060
Duration of isometric contraction of right ventricle, sec	0 030	0 010
End diastolic pressure in		
Right ventricle, mm Hg	0	1 0
Pulmonary artery, mm Hg	36 0	5 0

TABLE V

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN ADULTS WITH CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE

Heart rate per minute	Average of 21 cases	85	—
PR interval, sec	Average of 21 cases	0 180	—
QRS interval, sec	Average of 21 cases	0 080	—
Q-BA _s interval, sec	Average of 21 cases	0 170	0 140-0 210
P-At _s interval, sec	Average of 21 cases	0 083	0 050-0 100
<i>With normal right heart pressures</i>			
Q-RV _s interval, sec	Average of 8 cases	0 074	0 070-0 090
Q-PA _s interval, sec	Average of 8 cases	0 088	0 080-0 110
End diastolic pressure in			
Right ventricle, mm Hg	Average of 8 cases	3 0	—
Pulmonary artery, mm Hg	Average of 8 cases	7 0	—
Duration of isometric contraction of right ventricle, sec	Average of 8 cases	0 014	0 010-0 020
<i>With elevated right heart pressures</i>			
Q-RV _s interval, sec	Average of 13 cases	0 073	0 060-0 090
Q-PA _s interval, sec	Average of 13 cases	0 096	0 080-0 120
End diastolic pressure in			
Right ventricle, mm Hg	Average of 13 cases	7 0	—
Pulmonary artery, mm Hg	Average of 13 cases	32 0	—
Duration of isometric contraction of right ventricle sec	Average of 13 cases	0 023	0 010-0 050

of 21 patients with various types of cardiovascular disease including congenital, rheumatic, hypertensive, arteriosclerotic, and cor pulmonale

In all these patients the P-At_s, Q-RV_s, and Q-BA_s time intervals were approximately the same as in normal adults regardless of the presence or absence of cardiac failure

The Q-PA_s time interval studied in 8 cases of heart disease with normal right heart and pulmonary artery pressures (without evidence of congestive failure) was identical with the figure found in normal adults. In 13 patients with elevated right heart and pulmonary artery pressures and evidence of congestive failure, the average Q-PA_s time interval was slightly prolonged although the range did not differ greatly from the normals

The average duration of the isometric contraction of the right ventricle in cardiacs with normal right heart pressures was 0 014 sec, essentially a normal figure. This interval was required to raise the pres-

sure in the right ventricle from an average of 3 to 7 mm Hg. In the patients with congestive failure an average of 0 023 sec was required to raise the pressure from 7 to 32 mm Hg, a difference of 25 mm. This figure falls within the normal variation but the range was greater, and in some cases with hypertension of the lesser circulation, isometric contraction was markedly prolonged. As can be seen in Fig 10 (see p 12), there appears to be a trend of correlation between the duration of isometric contraction of the right ventricle and the magnitude of the pressure difference between the end diastolic levels of the right ventricle and the pulmonary artery

(b) *Abnormalities of Rhythm, Conduction, and Contraction* (1) *Auricular premature contractions*

Auricular premature beats were observed in three patients. In two, pressures were recorded in the right auricle, and in the third in the right auricle and right ventricle. A representative tracing is seen in

Fig 2 (see p 3) There was no demonstrable difference in the P-At_s, Q-RV_s, and Q-BA_s time intervals in the premature beat as compared to the sinus beat. It should be noted that in all these cases the degree of prematurity was not marked

(2) Ventricular premature contractions

The data that form the basis of this analysis were accumulated at random. It is therefore obvious that a systematic study, using more complete electrocardiographic data (conventional and endocardial leads), is required to confirm and amplify the findings reported here. In particular the problem of induced right ventricular premature contractions should be greatly clarified by a well planned study.

In this report emphasis will be placed only upon the following points: (a) asynchronism of the two

ventricles, (b) nature and character of auricular events during the premature ventricular contractions, (c) relationship between premature contraction and arterial systolic rise.

(a) *Ventricular asynchronism and its relationship to the site of origin of the premature ventricular contractions*. The type of ventricular asynchronism produced by premature ventricular contractions can be identified by examination of mechanical events recorded simultaneously on both sides of the heart. A prolongation of the Q-RV_s time alone suggests a delay in contraction of the right ventricle, while prolongation of the Q-BA_s time points to a delay in left ventricular contraction.

However, in order to compare the Q-BA_s time interval of the normal beat and the premature contraction, it was necessary to read the Q-BA_s times at the same pressure levels. Since the diastolic

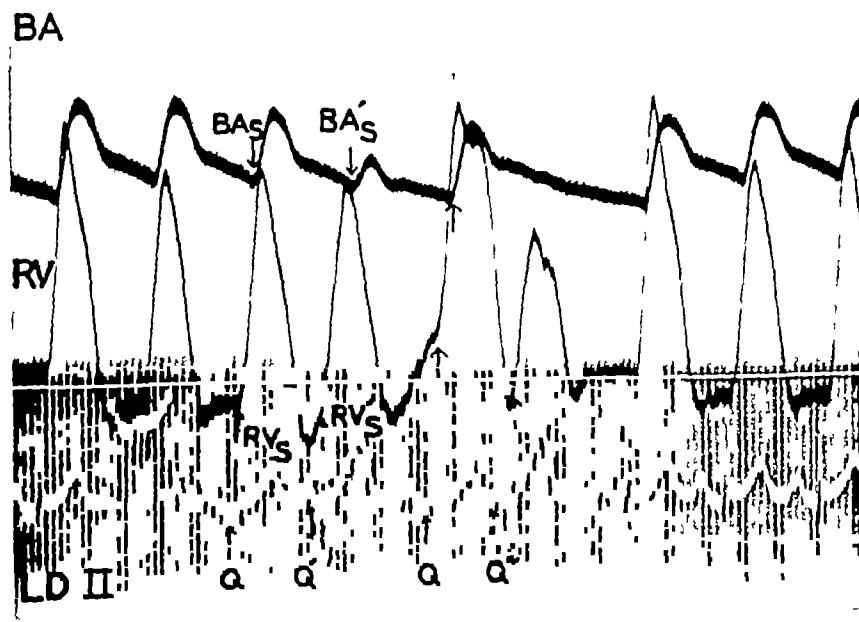


FIG 6—Record illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with ventricular premature contractions

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (BA), the right ventricle (RV), and electrocardiogram lead II. Q and Q' correspond to premature contractions.

Q-BA_s = 0.130 sec Q-RV_s = 0.060 sec Q-BA_s = 0.210 sec Q-RV_s = 0.060 sec
Q-Q' = 0.44 sec Q-Q' = 0.38 sec

Note that Q' is not followed by demonstrable pulse wave in the brachial artery and corresponds to a low pressure rise in the right ventricle.

pressure in the aorta will be higher the earlier the premature contraction, it was arbitrarily decided to read the Q-BA_s time for the normal beat at the initial pressure level of the premature beat

The majority of ventricular premature beats studied, showed as the striking characteristic, a lengthening of the Q-BA_s time (average of 9 cases, 0.227 sec, range 0.180 to 0.270 sec) while the Q-RV_s time remained normal (average of 9 cases, 0.074 sec, range 0.060 to 0.100 sec). An illustrative example is shown in Fig 6

However, in one patient in whom numerous premature beats were observed, the Q-BA_s time intervals in the sinus and premature beats were respectively 0.140 and 0.150 sec. In contrast, the Q-RV_s time of the sinus beats varied from 0.060 to 0.070 sec while the Q-RV_s times of the premature beats were 0.070 to 0.100 sec

In summary, the ventricular asynchronism found suggests that there was a delay in left ventricular contraction in the first group of 9 patients, whereas in one case the observations point to a delay in right ventricular contraction. Whether the delay was due to abnormalities of contraction or spread of excitation or both, is a matter of conjecture

The relationship between the type of ventricular asynchronism and the site of origin of the ventricular premature beats is of considerable interest. In the first group of 9 patients the site of origin of most of these spontaneous premature contractions could not be identified since the majority of pressure recordings

were made simultaneously with lead II of the electrocardiograph. However, the type of ventricular asynchronism suggests a right ventricular origin for these beats

In the single patient previously discussed, the type of ventricular asynchronism suggests a left ventricular origin for all the premature beats. However, the successive premature contractions as recorded on lead I were of such different electrical configurations as to suggest both right and left ventricular origins. In addition, in a second case a similar situation was found. In this instance two isolated premature beats with QRS deflections in opposite directions were recorded in lead I (Fig 7). It is seen that while the normal beat shows a Q-RV_s time interval of 0.070 sec the same interval measures 0.170 sec in the first premature beat and 0.150 sec in the second. There was no pressure wave in the brachial artery tracing corresponding to the ectopic beats, indicating absence of ejection into the aorta and, therefore, no information as to the events in the left ventricle could be obtained

It is obvious from the two cases just cited that it is difficult to interpret the relationship between electrical configuration of the premature contractions and the mechanical events, since different electrical patterns gave the same type of ventricular asynchronism

In the only investigations so far reported in man relating to this type of asynchronism, Castex, Battro, and Gonzales (1941) have shown that in premature

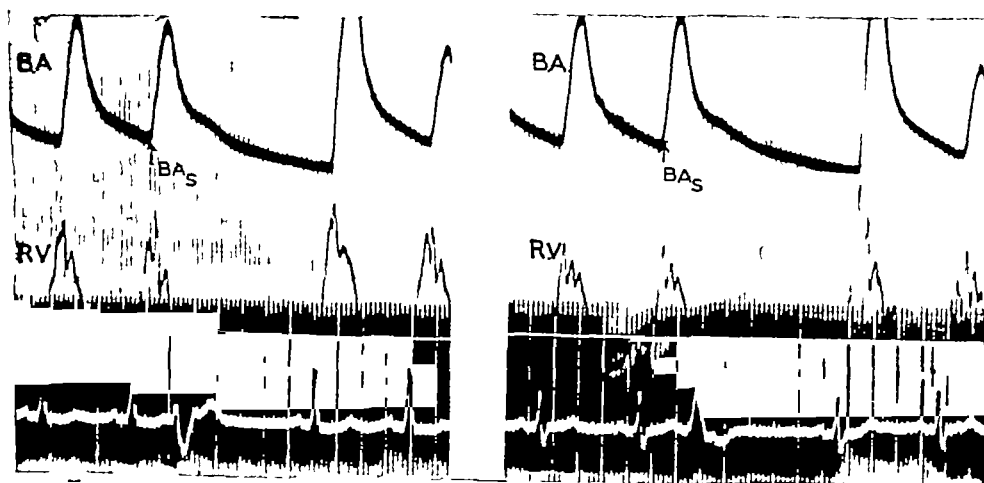


FIG 7—Records illustrating electrical mechanical events in a case with ventricular premature contractions characterized by different electrical patterns

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (BA), the right ventricle (RV) and electrocardiogram lead I

In the electrocardiogram to the right an S wave has appeared indicating right bundle branch block induced by quinidine. Ventricular tracings show many artifacts but the early systolic pressure rise can be defined

beats there is a very significant increase in the time interval between the onset of the QRS complex and the beginning of pressure rise in the subclavian artery. In 76 normal subjects the time interval averaged 0.120 sec, while in 10 cases of right ventricular premature contractions, it averaged 0.220 sec. An unexpected finding was the prolongation of the time interval between Q and the pressure rise in the subclavian artery in 13 cases of left ventricular premature contractions.

(b) *Nature and character of auricular events during the premature ventricular contractions* In 6 cases of ventricular premature beats, tracings of right auricular pressure waves showed a rise in pressure, A', occurring during and immediately following ectopic ventricular complexes. This is in contrast to the usual drop in pressure accompanying the descent of the base at the onset of ventricular systole. Examples of such tracings are seen in Fig. 8 and 9. The question arises as to whether these pressure waves, A', were related to tricuspid insufficiency, bulging of the valve during ventricular isometric contraction, or to auricular systole of sinus or retrograde origin. In some instances a P wave could be detected in the S-T segment of the premature beats. These P waves preceded by the usual P-AT_s time interval, the auricular pressure rise, A'. In other instances no auricular deflection could be identified within the QRS complex or S-T segment. In both instances the time interval separating the previous auricular systole and A' was identical with the distance

between the normal auricular systoles regardless of the time at which the ventricular premature contraction appeared. This indicates that A' in these instances is the result of a normal auricular systole.

These findings are in agreement with observations of Lewis (1925) on premature beats as illustrated in his monograph (Fig. 182, page 212). In summary, it can be assumed that even when a premature ventricular beat occurs, the spread of stimulation from the sinus node may take place undisturbed and initiate a normal auricular contraction.

(c) *Relationship between ventricular ejection and degree of prematurity* It is a clinically established fact that some premature beats are followed by ejection of blood into the aorta, while some are not. With simultaneous recordings of the electrocardiogram and pulse waves in brachial artery and pulmonary artery, it is possible to obtain information concerning the shortest time interval between a normal sinus and a premature beat (Q-Q' interval) that gives rise to ejection of blood from the right and left ventricles, and the relation between this time interval and the heart rate. Table VI and Fig. 11 give data obtained in 9 patients concerning these problems. All the tracings showed several premature contractions occurring at various intervals after the sinus beats. In three of these cases pulmonary artery tracings were also available. It is seen that the shortest time interval between a sinus beat and a premature beat followed by left or right ventricular ejection varied with the rate and ranged between

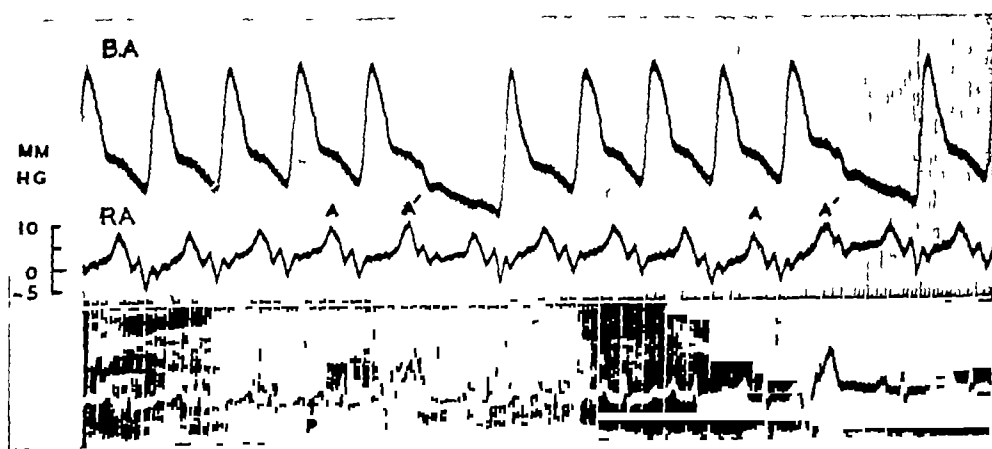


FIG. 8—Record illustrating electrical mechanical events in the atrium in a case with ventricular premature contractions.

From top to bottom blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (BA), right atrium (RA) and electrocardiogram lead II.

Note that the interval A-A' is equal to the normal auricular cycle time indicating that the sinus rhythm is undisturbed by premature contractions.

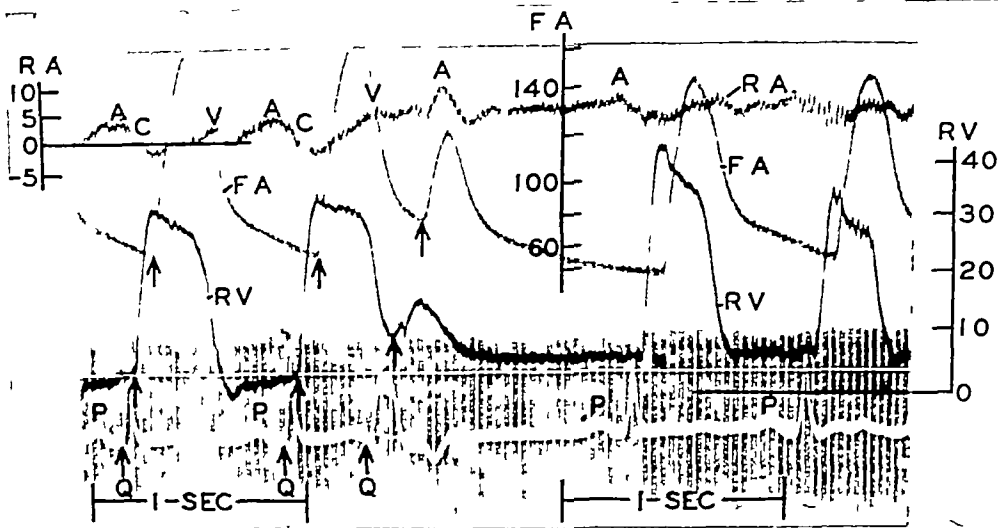


FIG 9—Record illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with ventricular premature contractions

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings from the right atrium (R.A), the femoral artery (F A), the right ventricle (R V), and electrocardiogram lead II For discussion see text The blood pressure tracings in the right atrium and right ventricle were taken with a double lumen catheter

Note that the brachial artery tracing shows left ventricular output following the premature contraction and that the corresponding right ventricular pressure curve starts during isometric relaxation This is strong evidence in favour of the presence of residual blood at the time of the premature contraction

F A = Femoral artery R V = Right ventricle R A = Right auricle Electrocardiogram, lead II A-C-V waves marked on R Aur All pressures in mm Hg

TABLE VI
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HEART RATE AND THE MINIMUM EJECTION TIME IN THE BRACHIAL AND PULMONARY ARTERIES IN NINE CASES WITH VENTRICULAR PREMATURE BEATS

Case no	Duration of the normal cycle sec	Heart rate per minute	Shortest Q-Q * interval followed by ejection in the	
			Brachial artery, sec	Pulmonary artery sec
317	0.460	130	0.340	0.340
315	0.540	111	0.400	—
348	0.680	88	0.440	0.440
345	0.720	83	0.410	—
316	0.760	79	0.510	0.480
350	0.780	78	0.480	—
306	0.780	78	0.450	—
313	0.920	65	0.500	—
320	1.040	58	0.640	—

* Q-Q interval is the time interval between the beginning of the QRS of the sinus beat and the beginning of the QRS of the ventricular premature beat

0.340 sec at 130 beats a minute and 0.640 sec at 58 beats a minute The remarkable straight line relationship of all intermediate points is well illustrated in the graph (Fig 11)

In summary at a rapid rate an early premature beat was followed by ejection of blood into the aorta

and pulmonary artery, whereas, at a slower rate, a ventricular contraction with the same degree of prematurity did not produce a pressure rise in the arterial tracings These observations can best be explained by the more rapid early diastolic filling of the heart at faster rates

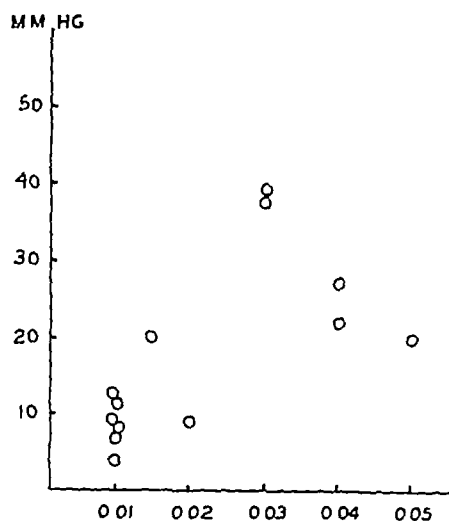


FIG 10—Correlation between the duration of isometric contraction and the corresponding pressure rise in the right ventricle in thirteen subjects including normal cases and cases with cardiac failure. The vertical scale shows the end diastolic pressure difference between the right ventricle and the pulmonary artery. The horizontal scale shows the isometric contraction time in seconds. For discussion see text.

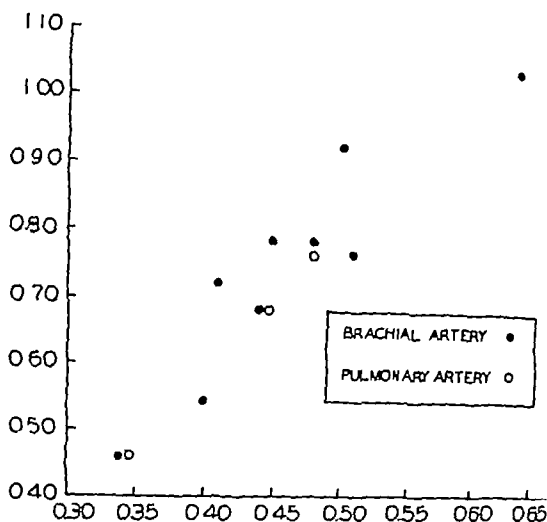


FIG 11—Correlation between heart rate and the shortest time interval between a normal beat and a premature contraction resulting in ejection of blood into the aorta or pulmonary artery. The horizontal scale shows the Q-Q interval in seconds; the vertical scale shows the duration of the normal cycle in seconds.

(3) Auricular Fibrillation

A study of the relationship between cycle length and Q-RV_s and Q-BA_s time intervals was made in three cases of arteriosclerotic heart disease with chronic auricular fibrillation. Significant variations as large as 0.070 sec. were found in the Q-RV_s and Q-BA_s intervals of successive beats, although the QRS complexes had essentially the same configuration and duration. No constant relationship was found between cycle length and these variations in the electrical-mechanical time intervals. In addition, the Q-RV_s and Q-BA_s intervals of the same beat did not vary to the same degree, as illustrated in Fig 12. These findings suggest that, besides the complete arrhythmia, disturbances of the contraction mechanism of both ventricles were present.

(4) Auricular Flutter

Two cases of auricular flutter were studied. In one of the cases observations were made on the P-AT_s time during a period with pure flutter and a 4:1 A-V response. The electrocardiogram and right auricular tracings are shown in Fig 13 and demonstrate the regular sequence of electrical and mechanical events. The duration of the P-AT_s time of each auricular systole was 0.070 sec., a figure slightly lower than the normal mean, but within the

normal range of variation. In this and a second case, varying degrees of block were also observed. Pressure tracings in the right auricle, right ventricle, and brachial artery were recorded and are illustrated in Fig 14. It is seen that the 3:1 cycle with its longer ventricular diastolic filling period was followed by a larger pressure rise in the brachial artery and right ventricle than was the 2:1 cycle with its shorter filling period. The auricular pressure tracings were not influenced by the degree of block, while the brachial artery and right ventricular pressures were dependent on the time at which the QRS fell in relation to isometric relaxation. In addition, it was found that the Q-BA_s time of a weak beat was longer by 0.020 sec. than the time of the strong beat, if both beats were read at the same pressure levels. This suggests that the duration of isometric contraction was prolonged following poor filling of the ventricles. Similar observations regarding the influence of the varying A-V response upon the brachial artery pressure are seen in Fig 15 which illustrates a case of auricular flutter with successive 3:1, 2:1, 1:1 A-V ratio.

(5) Heart Block

Nine cases with different types of heart block were studied, two cases of complete heart block with idio-

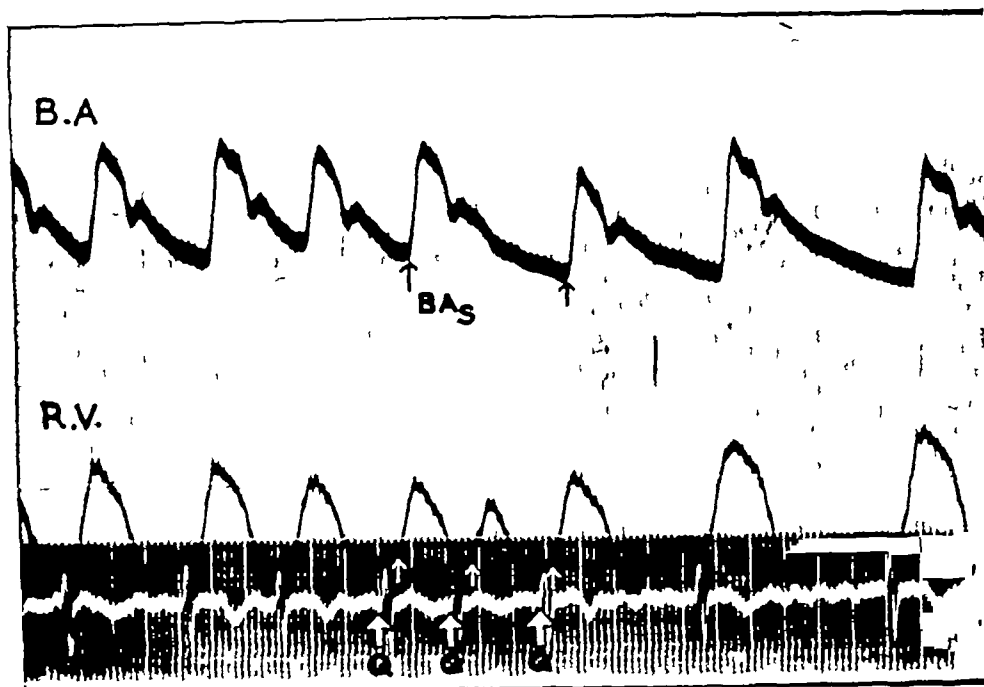


FIG 12—Record illustrating electrical mechanical events in a case of auricular fibrillation

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A), right ventricle (R V), and electrocardiogram lead II

In the three beats indicated by arrows the successive $Q-RV_s$ and $Q-BA_s$ times were first beat, $Q-RV_s = 0.110$ sec and $Q-BA_s = 0.190$ sec, second beat, $Q-RV_s = 0.110$ sec and $Q-BA_s$ not measurable third beat, $Q-RV_s = 0.070$ sec and $Q-BA_s = 0.170$ sec

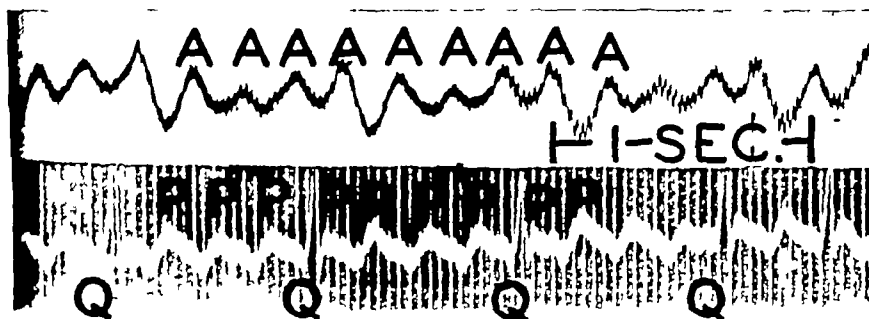


FIG 13—Auricular flutter Record illustrating electrical mechanical events in a case with a 4:1 A-V response

From top to bottom, right atrial blood pressure tracings and electrocardiogram lead II For discussion see text

ventricular rhythm originating in the His bundle, one case of incomplete A-V heart block, two cases of left bundle branch block, two cases of right bundle branch block, and two cases of right bundle branch block with 2:1 A-V heart block, one of which showed runs of complete heart block

(a) *Complete heart block* The two cases with complete heart block had P waves and QRS complexes of normal duration The data relating to the duration of the time intervals between electrical and mechanical events will be found in Table VII As was to be expected, the $P-AT_s$, the $Q-RV_s$, and the

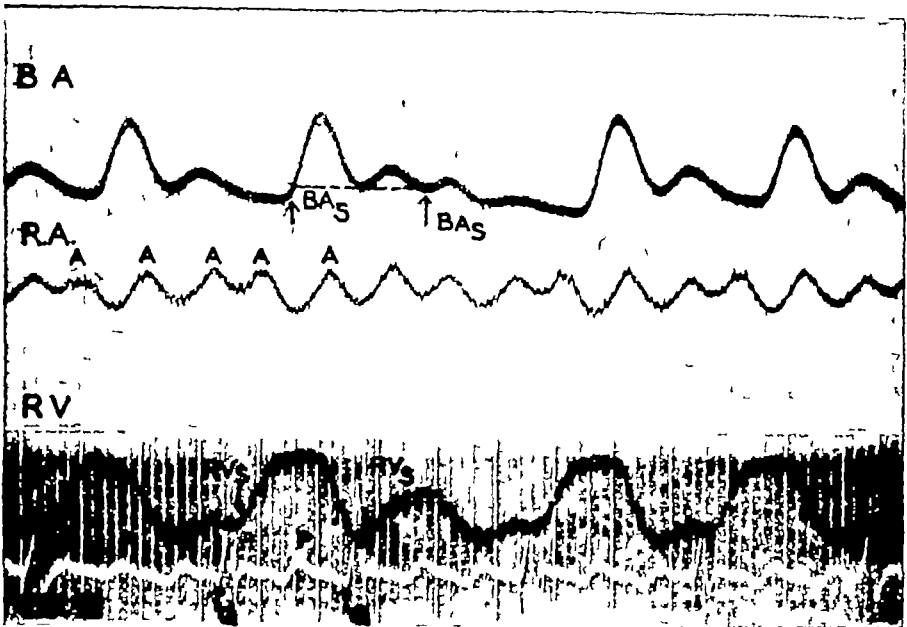


FIG 14—Auricular flutter Record illustrating electrical mechanical events in a case with 3 1, 2 1 A-V response

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A) the right atrium (R A), the right ventricle (R V), and electrocardiogram lead II

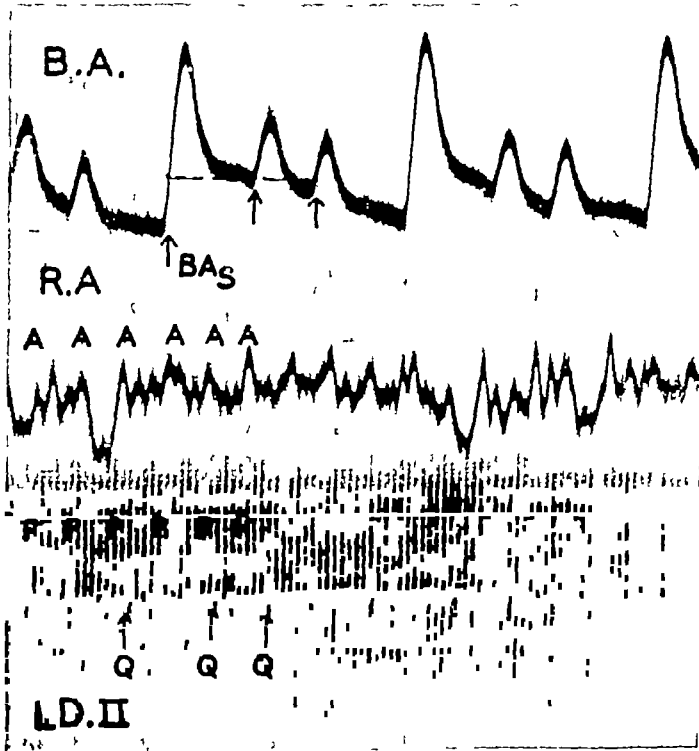


FIG 15—Auricular flutter Record illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with 3 1, 2 1, 1 1 A-V ratio

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A), the right atrium (R A), and electrocardiogram lead II For discussion see text

TABLE VII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN TWO CASES OF COMPLETE HEART BLOCK

	Case 254	Case 341
Auricular rate per minute	94	86
Ventricular rate per minute	33	33
QRS interval, sec	0.080	0.090
P-At _s interval, sec	0.090	0.090
Q-RV _s interval, sec	0.070	0.070
Q-BA _s interval, sec	0.140	0.150

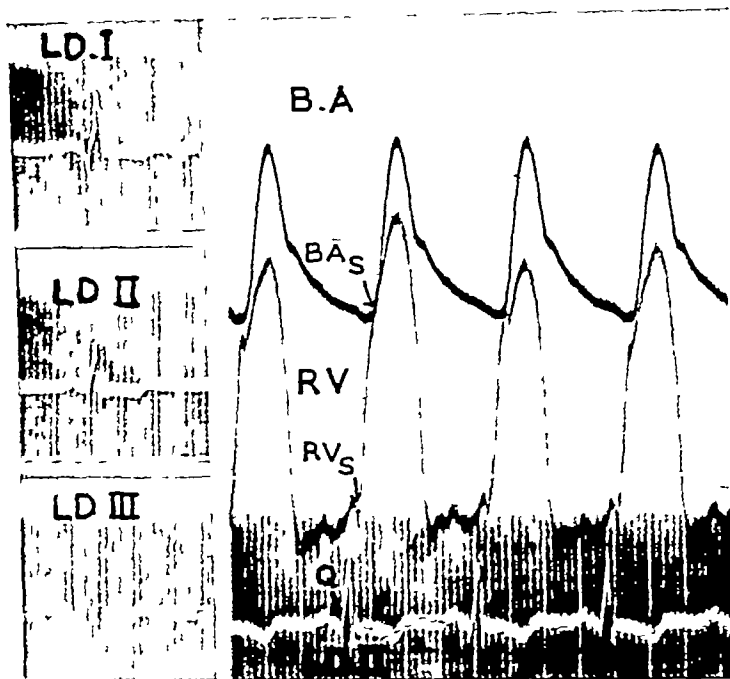


FIG 16—Record illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with left bundle branch block

To the left are the standard leads of the electrocardiogram demonstrating left bundle branch block. Præcordial leads showed delayed peak of R in V5 and V6. To the right, from top to bottom are blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A), the right ventricle (R V) and electrocardiogram lead II. For time intervals see Table VIII, Case 416, and for discussion see text.

Q-BA_s times were normal. There was, therefore, no delay and no asynchronism in the pressure build-up of either ventricle. A characteristic tracing of pressure in the right auricle may be seen in Fig 17. The striking feature was the regular sequence of auricular systoles which occurred at various times in relation to the ventricular cycles. It is seen that the characteristic drop of auricular pressure during ventricular ejection took place at the expected time after the QRS complex. The height of the A wave

corresponding to auricular systole was variable, depending on whether or not the ventricle was in systole or diastole, i.e. the tricuspid valve was opened or closed, the largest deflection occurring when the tricuspid valve was closed. (See the first and the last A in lower section of Fig 17). In the few instances where a P wave fell approximately 0.12 to 0.20 sec before the QRS complex, the auricular pressure tracing showed the characteristic deflection of an a wave followed by a c wave preceding the descent

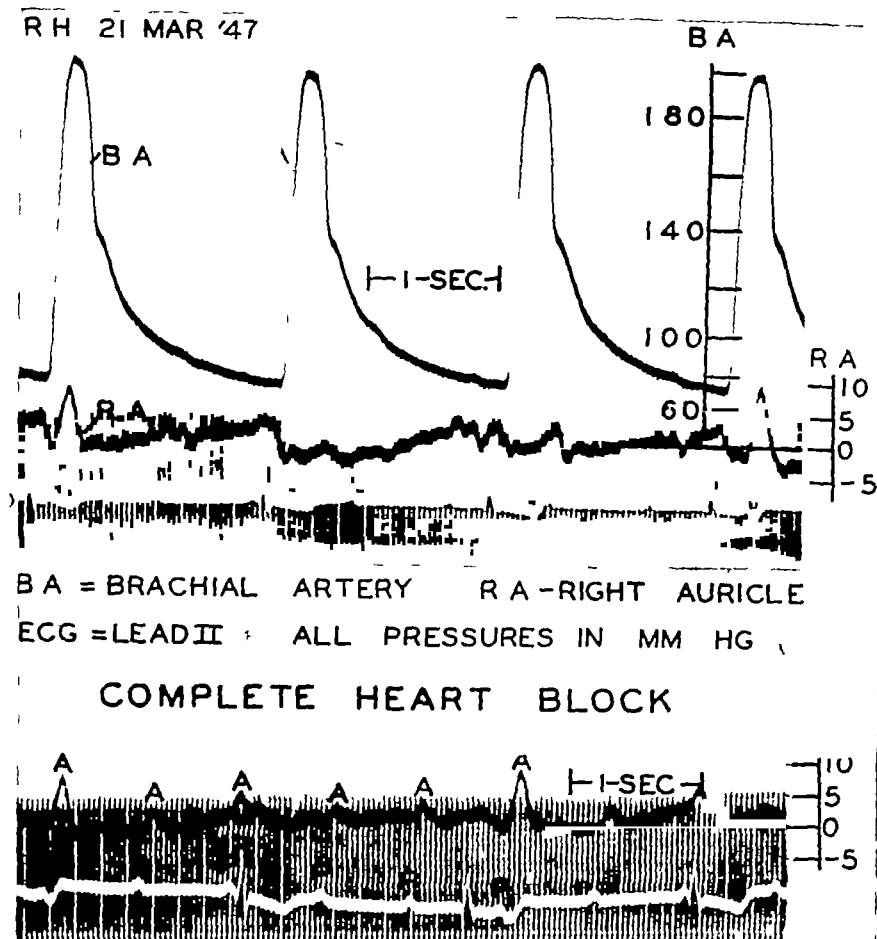


FIG 17—Complete heart block Records illustrating electrical-mechanical events in such a case

In the upper section from top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (BA), the right atrium (RA) and electrocardiogram lead II. In the lower section, blood pressure tracings in the right atrium (RA) and electrocardiogram lead II.

of the base. (See the third A from the left in lower section of Fig 17.)

(b) *Incomplete A-V heart block* Incomplete A-V heart block with prolongation of the PR interval was observed in a patient with generalized scleroderma involving the heart and lungs (Fig 18). The duration of the P wave was normal and the P-R interval was prolonged to 0.25 sec. The P-AT_s time was lengthened to 0.16 sec, whereas the Q-RV_s and Q-BA_s times were normal, 0.08 sec and 0.14 to 0.16 sec respectively. The lengthening of the P-AT_s time suggests that there was abnormality in contraction of the auricle and apparently no difficulty in conduction within the auricular muscle as

evidenced by the normal width of the P wave. In a previous publication, Cournand *et al* (1946), the prolonged Q-RV_s time reported was incorrect as subsequent examination revealed the portion of the tracing read to be damped.

(c) *Bundle branch block* Ventricular asynchronism in the presence of bundle branch block has been demonstrated by several authors, using the peripheral arterial pulse wave or stethogram recorded simultaneously with the electrocardiogram. More complete data pertaining to this type of asynchronism can be added by comparison of the Q-RV_s and Q-BA_s times, since the former gives direct information concerning contraction of the right ventricle and

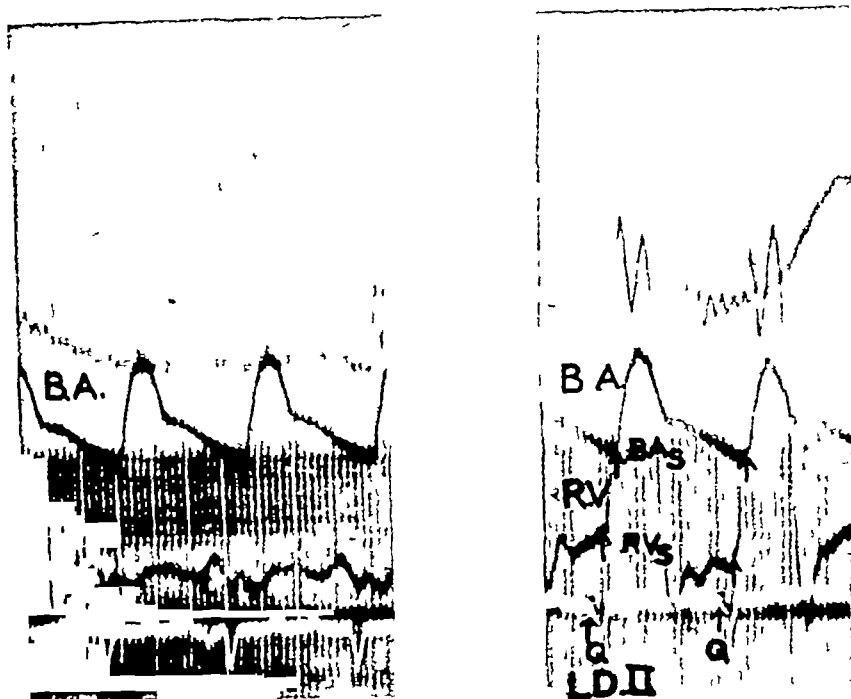


FIG 18—Record illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with incomplete A-V block (prolonged P-R interval) associated with generalized scleroderma involving the heart and lungs. In the section to the left, from top to bottom, pneumogram, blood pressure tracings from the brachial artery (B A), the right atrium (R A), and electrocardiogram lead II. In the section to the right, pneumogram, blood pressure tracings from the brachial artery (B A), the right ventricle (R V), and electrocardiogram lead II. For discussion see text.

the latter indirect information concerning left ventricular contraction.

(i) *Left bundle branch block* Three patients with hypertensive and arteriosclerotic heart disease, congestive heart failure, and left bundle branch block were studied and the data is presented in Table VIII and one case (416) is illustrated in Fig 16. The time intervals in the three cases suggest a normal contraction time of the right ventricle and delayed contraction of the left ventricle, consistent with the

ventricular asynchronism expected with left bundle branch block.

(ii) *Right bundle branch block* In two cases, right bundle branch block was induced following the oral administration of 0.80 g of quinidine sulphate. The electrocardiogram and blood pressure tracings, therefore, could be compared before and after the appearance of the bundle branch block. The data may be found in Table IX. In the first case, a 21 year old girl with an interventricular septal defect,

TABLE VIII
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN THREE CASES OF LEFT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

	Case 306*	Case 261	Case 416
QRS interval, sec	0.120	0.160	0.120
Q-RV ₅ interval, sec	0.070	0.090	0.090
Q-BA ₅ interval, sec		0.220	0.240
Q-TA ₅ interval, sec	0.200† and 0.230†		

* A case with pulsus alternans.

† Time interval variation corresponding to strong and weak beats of pulsus alternans (see text).

TABLE IX
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN RIGHT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK
Right Bundle Branch Block induced by Quinidine

	Case 333		Case 351	
	Control	R B B B I	Control	R B B B I
QRS interval, sec	0 060	0 120	0 105	0 120
Q-RV _s interval, sec	0 070	0 110	0 070	0 110
Q-BA _s interval, sec	0 170	—	0 190	0 190

Right Bundle Branch Block in Cases with Arteriosclerotic Heart Disease and Cor Pulmonale (Case 440) and with 2 1 A-V Block (Cases 302 and 268)

	Case 440	Case 302	Case 268
QRS interval, sec	0 140	0 160	0 170
Q-RV _s interval, sec	0 130	0 120	0 105
Q-PA _s interval, sec	0 150	—	—
Q-BA _s interval, sec	0 130	0 170	0 240

the control tracings showed normal electrical complexes and time intervals. After quinidine, a right bundle branch block developed and the normal Q-RV_s time of 0 070 sec was prolonged to 0 110 sec. In the second case, a 60 year old man with arteriosclerosis and an old myocardial infarct, the control electrocardiogram showed evidence of myocardial damage and early incomplete bundle branch block, characterized by a QRS of 0 105 sec in lead II and a delayed peak of the R wave over the left præcordium. Before administration of quinidine, the Q-RV_s time was normal but the Q-BA_s time was slightly prolonged, confirming the electrocardiographic diagnosis of early incomplete left bundle branch block. After quinidine, an S wave appeared in lead I and the QRS complex increased in that lead to 0 120 sec. The Q-BA_s time remained unchanged but the Q-RV_s time increased from 0 070 sec to 0 110 sec (Fig 7). In Fig 19 (Table IX, Case 440) is illustrated an additional case of right bundle branch block observed in a patient with arteriosclerotic heart disease and cor pulmonale, in which a markedly prolonged Q-RV_s time is seen.

In summary, intracardiac and intra-arterial blood pressure tracings recorded simultaneously with the electrocardiogram demonstrated clearly the presence of ventricular asynchronism in bundle branch block.

These findings confirm and add to the observations of various authors (Castex *et al*, 1941, Battro *et al*, 1936, Katz *et al*, 1927 and 1935, Kossman *et al*, 1947, Nichol, 1933, and Wolferth *et al*, 1935) who have studied mechanical and electrical relationships in bundle branch block. Various types of simultaneous tracings were employed by these authors

and include electrocardiograms, peripheral artery blood pressure tracings, and in a few instances stethograms, phlebograms, and apical cardiograms. They found that in left bundle branch block there was a prolongation of the "ejection time" which corresponded to the prolongation of the Q-BA_s time found in the present study. In right bundle branch block the "ejection time" remained essentially normal. Data concerning the events in the right ventricle was obtained by indirect means and is subject to interpretation.

(d) *Right bundle branch block with incomplete 2 1 A-V block.* In 2 patients a 2 1 A-V block was associated with right bundle branch block. In addition, one of these patients had short periods of complete heart block. The data in these two cases may be found in Table IX. In the first case the duration of the QRS complex was 0 160 sec, the ventricular complexes were of the aberrant type with downward deflection in lead I and upward deflection in lead III, suggesting that the stimulation arrived first in the left ventricle. The Q-RV_s time was significantly prolonged to 0 120 sec while the Q-BA_s time was normal (0 170 sec).

In the second case (Fig 20 and 21 and Table IX, Case 268) during the periods of incomplete 2 1 heart block the P-R interval was markedly prolonged to 0 310 sec. The Q-RV_s and Q-BA_s times were both lengthened to 0 105 and 0 240 sec, respectively. During the period of complete heart block with an auricular rate of 71 and a ventricular rate of 27, the ventricular complexes were of the same aberrant configuration and the same duration, again with downward deflection in lead I, upward in lead III.

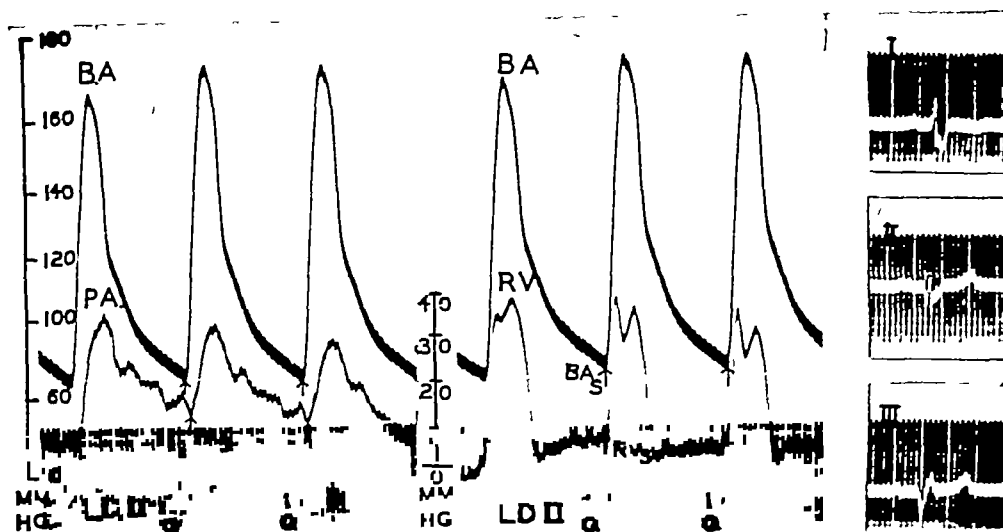


FIG 19—Records illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with right bundle branch block. To the right, are the standard leads of the electrocardiogram demonstrating right bundle branch block. In the centre, are blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A.), the right ventricle (R V.), and electrocardiogram lead II. To the left, are blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A.), the pulmonary artery (P A.), and electrocardiogram lead II. Note, as in Fig 3, the ascending slopes of the right ventricle and pulmonary artery do not coincide. For figures see Table IX, Case 440. For discussion see text.

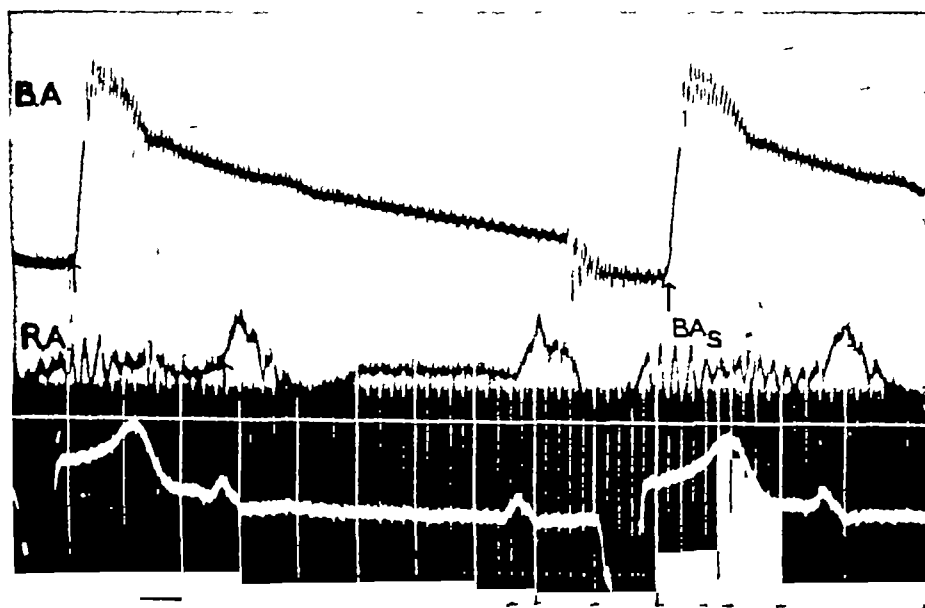


FIG 20—Records illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with right bundle branch block and 2:1 A-V block. From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (B A.), the right atrium (R A.), and electrocardiogram lead II. For data see Table IX, Case 268, and for discussion see text.

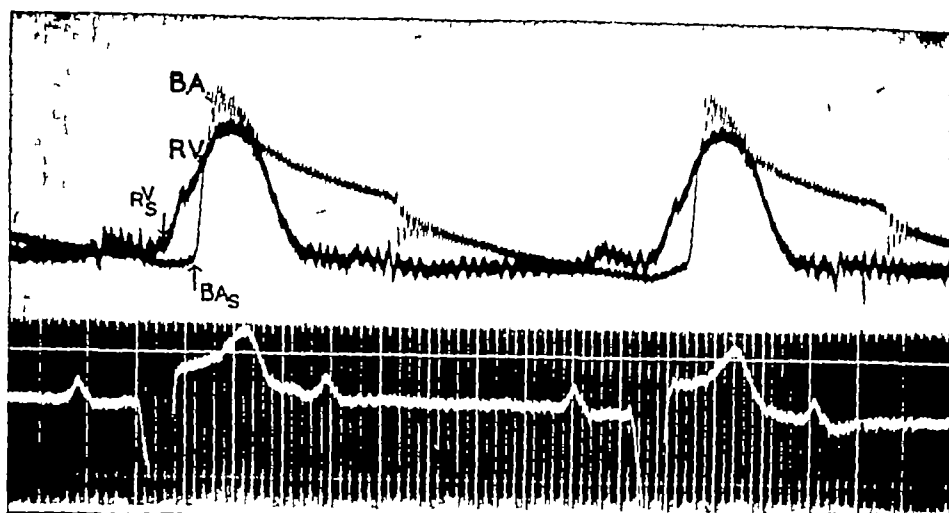


FIG 21—Records illustrating electrical-mechanical events in a case with right bundle branch block and 2:1 A-V block.

From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the brachial artery (BA), the right ventricle (RV), and electrocardiogram lead II

For data see Table IX, Case 268, and for discussion see text

This suggests that ventricular depolarization was the same as during incomplete A-V block, and that the idioventricular focus was probably in the His bundle. The Q-RV_s and Q-BA_s time intervals were unchanged. During both complete and incomplete A-V block the duration of P-AT_s time was short (0.050 sec), see Fig 20, indicating no abnormality of auricular contraction, in contrast to the findings in the case with incomplete A-V block previously described.

These two patients are of particular interest because during a period of 2:1 block with right bundle branch block the electrocardiographic patterns were identical. In the first case there was a delay in right ventricular contraction, whereas in the second case slow spread of stimulation or delay in contraction existed in both ventricles.

(6) Pulsus Alternans

One case of hypertensive and arteriosclerotic heart disease with left bundle branch block showed

evidence of pulsus alternans of the mechanical type. The findings in this case (306) are illustrated in Fig. 22 and the data listed in Tables VIII and X. In the femoral artery tracings there was a variation in the systolic peak which occurred in a regular manner and may be interpreted as a succession of strong and weak beats. In contrast there was a steady level of the systolic peaks in the right ventricle. There was no evidence in the electrocardiogram of electrical alternation. The duration of the QRS complex in alternate beats remained the same and the Q-RV_s time also did not vary. The striking abnormality was the rhythmic variation of the Q-BA_s time. This interval was shorter for the beat corresponding to the high systolic peak and longer for the beat corresponding to the lower systolic peak. These variations in pressure as well as the variations in the Q-BA_s time, occurring rhythmically without any variation in the duration of the QRS complex, suggest a less efficient ventricular contraction every other beat. However, it is not possible to eliminate

TABLE X
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS IN PATIENT WITH PULSUS ALTERNANS
(CASE 306)

	Strong beat	Weak beat
QRS interval, sec	0.120	0.120
Q-RV _s interval, sec	0.070	0.070
Q-BA _s interval, sec	0.200	0.230

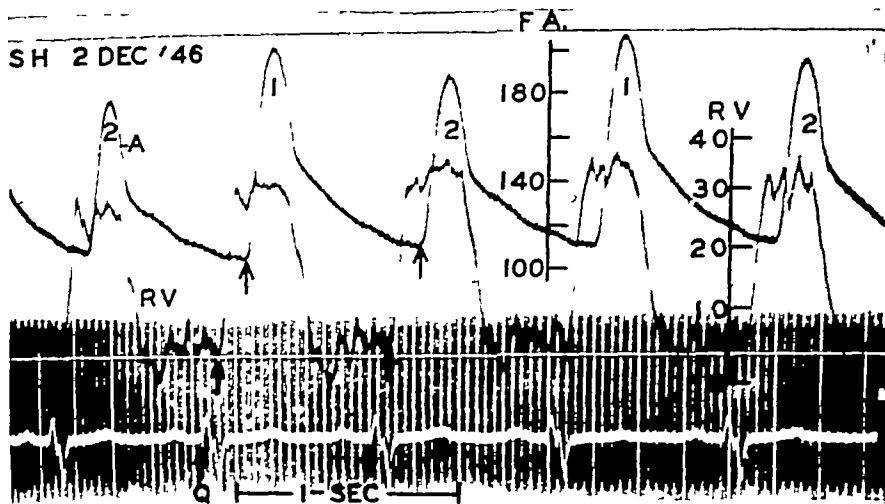


FIG 22 —Pulsus alternans. Records illustrating electrical-mechanical events in such a case. From top to bottom, blood pressure tracings in the femoral artery, the right ventricle, and electrocardiogram lead II. No 1 corresponds to the strong beat and No 2 to the weak beat.

Note absence of alternation of pressure in right ventricle. For data see Tables VIII and X, Case 306, and for discussion see text.

F A = Femoral artery R V = Right ventricle All pressures in mm Hg
Electrocardiogram, lead II

as a factor rhythmic variation of peripheral vascular tone of reflex origin, which would ultimately influence the curve of blood ejection from the left ventricle into the aorta and the pulse wave velocity.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The relationship between electrical and mechanical events in the cardiac cycle was studied in normal subjects, in children with congenital heart disease, and in adults with cardiovascular disease.

In children the intervals were shorter than those of normal adults. The prolongation of the isometric contraction of the right ventricle in children with congenital heart disease seemed to be dependent upon hypertension of the lesser circulation.

In adults with heart disease who had normal sinus rhythm and no conduction abnormalities, the time intervals were identical with those found in normal adults unless they were in congestive failure with hypertension of the lesser circulation. In this event the Q-PA_s time interval was slightly prolonged and the duration of isometric contraction of the right ventricle was also longer than normal.

Abnormalities of rhythm, conduction, and contraction encountered in patients with cardiovascular disease were also analysed and the following points deserve emphasis:

(a) Ventricular premature contractions apparently produce two types of asynchronism with a lag in one

or the other ventricle. It is difficult to interpret the relationship between electrical configuration of the premature contractions and the mechanical events, since premature beats with electrocardiographic patterns identifying them as arising from opposite ventricles produced the same type of ventricular asynchronism.

(b) In chronic auricular fibrillation, in addition to the complete arrhythmia, disturbances of the contraction mechanism of both ventricles were present.

(c) In auricular flutter the time intervals remained constant and normal during pure flutter with a constant A-V ratio. Minor variations in the Q-RV_s and Q-BA_s intervals as well as variations in right ventricular and brachial artery systolic pressures were found when the degree of block varied.

(d) In cases of complete heart block with bundle of His ventricular rhythm the auricular and ventricular electrical-mechanical intervals remained normal even though the conduction defect consisted of complete A-V dissociation. In uncomplicated bundle branch block ventricular asynchronism of the expected type was found. However, in one patient with both incomplete 2:1 A-V block and right bundle branch block there was a delay in onset of the mechanical systole in both ventricles.

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R WAVES INTERRUPTING T WAVES

BY

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In the course of some experiments on anæsthetized dogs and cats concerned with the production experimentally of ventricular flutter and ventricular fibrillation, Fastier and Smirk (1948) noted that R waves sometimes appeared on the descent of the antecedent T waves, shortly before the onset of ventricular flutter. The flutter was induced by a substance amarin* which had been found by one of us (F H S) to alter the response of the animals to adrenaline so that a moderate dose of adrenaline, ordinarily well tolerated, would now give rise to ventricular flutter.

These observations led me to seek more closely for such phenomena in human electrocardiograms. The present paper concerns 17 patients in whom R waves have been observed on the T waves of antecedent complexes. It seems that interruptions of T waves by R waves are not very uncommon, are likely to prove important prognostically, and seem to provide an indication for treatment.

Little has been written on this subject either from the experimental or from the clinical standpoint, and such information as is available may be unfamiliar to some of the authors who have published records without commenting upon the phenomenon. The first reference I was able to discover to the occurrence of an R wave on a T wave was in a footnote by Katz (1928) in the course of his comprehensive review on the T wave. Katz mentioned here that an example of an R wave on a T wave has been observed by Dr Ashman, three examples by Drs Feil and Seigel, and three by himself. He mentioned that the only published record was by Wenkebach and Winterberg (1927) and that Wiggers had seen it in dogs. I have been unable to find any record of subsequent reports on the finding of R waves on the T waves with the exception of Scherf

and Boyd (1940) and of Ashman and Hull (1941) in their books on electrocardiography, they confine themselves to the statement that an R wave may encroach on the descent of the T wave.

The published electrocardiograms show many examples in which R waves appear to arise on the descent of T waves but, with the exception referred to above, I have found so far no corresponding comment by the authors.

Theoretically R waves might occur superimposed upon T waves in several ways. Most of these theoretical possibilities have been given practical illustration in the 17 cases here reported.

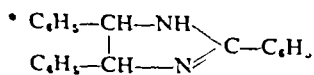
(1) A ventricular complex of supraventricular origin could be interrupted by another ventricular complex of supraventricular origin (Cases 3, 4, 13, 14, 15, 16, Fig 3 and 9). This might occur in auricular paroxysmal tachycardia in auricular fibrillation (Fig 3 and 9), in auricular flutter, and possibly with very premature auricular systoles.

(2) A ventricular complex of supraventricular origin could be interrupted by a premature ventricular complex (Cases 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 17, Fig 6 and 7).

(3) A premature ventricular complex could be interrupted by a ventricular complex of supraventricular origin (Case 4, Fig 4).

(4) A premature ventricular complex could be interrupted by another premature ventricular complex (Cases 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, Fig 1, 2, 4, 5, and 8). This last might occur with single pairs of ventricular premature beats (Fig 1) or in the course of ventricular paroxysmal tachycardia (Fig 2).

Reference to published cardiographic tracings illustrating a variety of cardiological conditions suggests that some of the other theoretical possibilities may have been realized. For example interruptions of paroxysmal auricular tachycardia (Graybiel and White, 1946) in which the P waves appeared in the S-T segments



CASE REPORTS

Case 1, male, aged 59 years Retrosternal pain twelve hours before admission The electrocardiographic diagnosis was that of *anterior apical infarction* In two instances in about 46 seconds of electrocardiographic recording examples were found of an ectopic ventricular complex interrupted before its completion by a subsequent ectopic complex (Fig 1) Both interruptions occurred on the latter half of the T wave

The patient was improving during the first 19 days and then had an extension of the cardiac infarction with a further fall in the blood pressure Next day he was noticed to be breathing ster-

torously Shortly after he tried to sit up and died suddenly, as was thought, from ventricular flutter The autopsy revealed multiple small infarcted areas in the anterior apical region

Case 2, male, aged 46 years *Cardiac infarction* Severe retro-sternal pain of 36 hours duration About one month after admission the patient developed a *ventricular paroxysmal tachycardia* and was treated by quinidine which restored a natural regular rhythm The patient was discharged in good condition

The electrocardiograms were indefinite in regard to the clinical diagnosis of cardiac infarction The terminal deflection of the first run of tachycardia

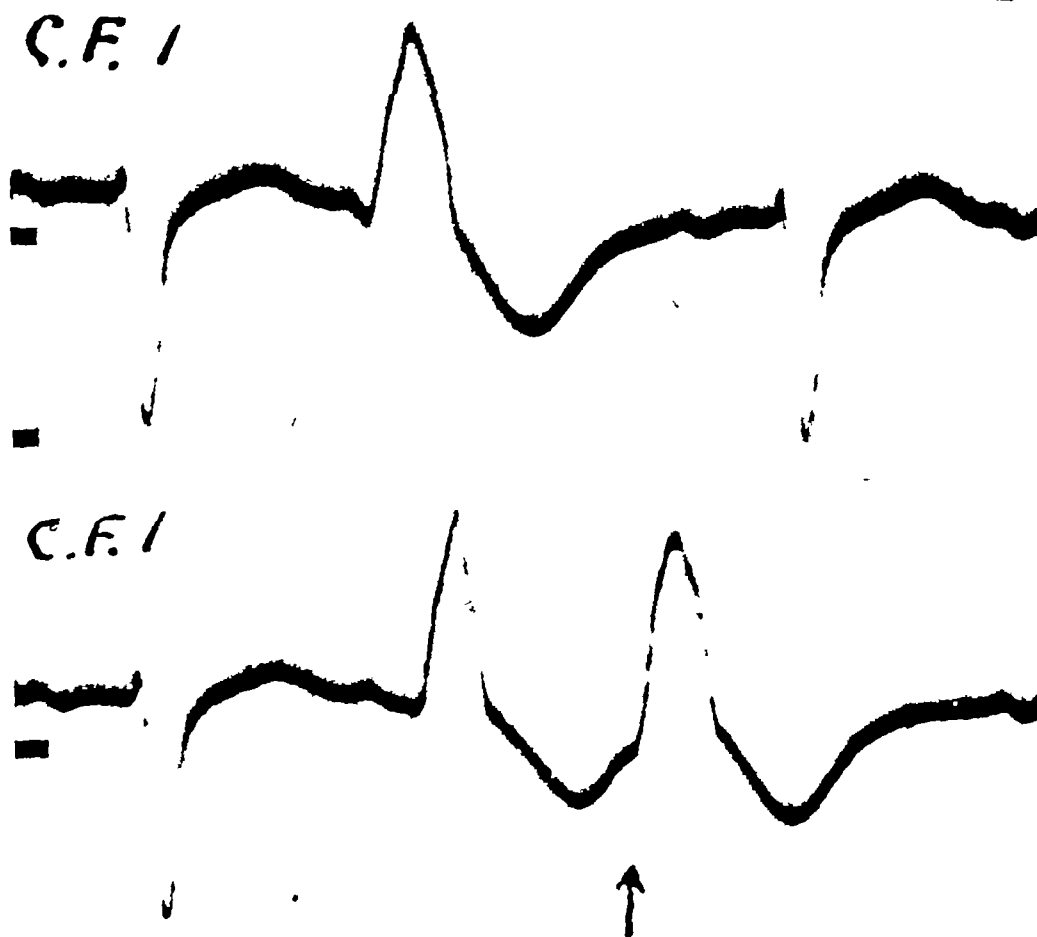


FIG 1—Case 1 The upper trace shows a single uninterrupted premature ventricular systole and the lower shows a pair of premature ventricular systoles of which the second interrupts the terminal deflection of the first The interrupted complex may be compared in shape with the complete complex in the upper trace and with the complex that follows it Time intervals 0.1 sec

in lead III and the ventricular complex towards the end of the lead III strip indicate the shape and duration of uninterrupted ventricular complexes (Fig 2)

In the middle of the paroxysm the individual complexes differ in duration and this seems to depend chiefly on the point at which the T-like terminal

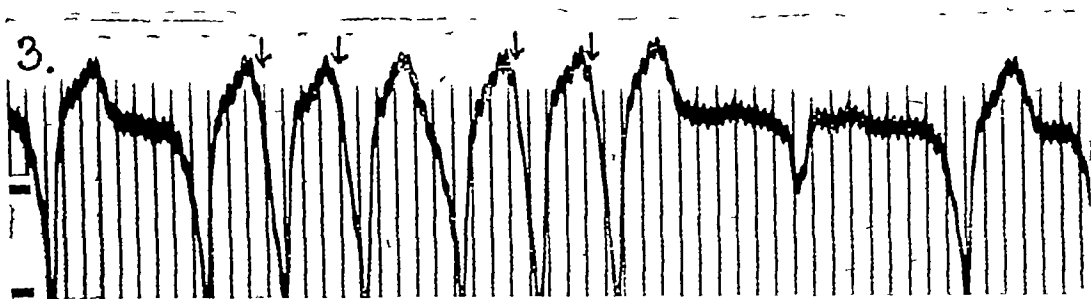


FIG 2—Case 2 The trace shows a paroxysm of ventricular tachycardia. This complex at the end of the paroxysm and the complexes at the extreme left and right of the trace are uninterrupted. The arrows mark the points where complexes are interrupted during the paroxysm. Comparison with intact complexes indicates how much of the interrupted complexes have been cut off by the beginnings of new ventricular complexes. Time intervals 0.05 sec.

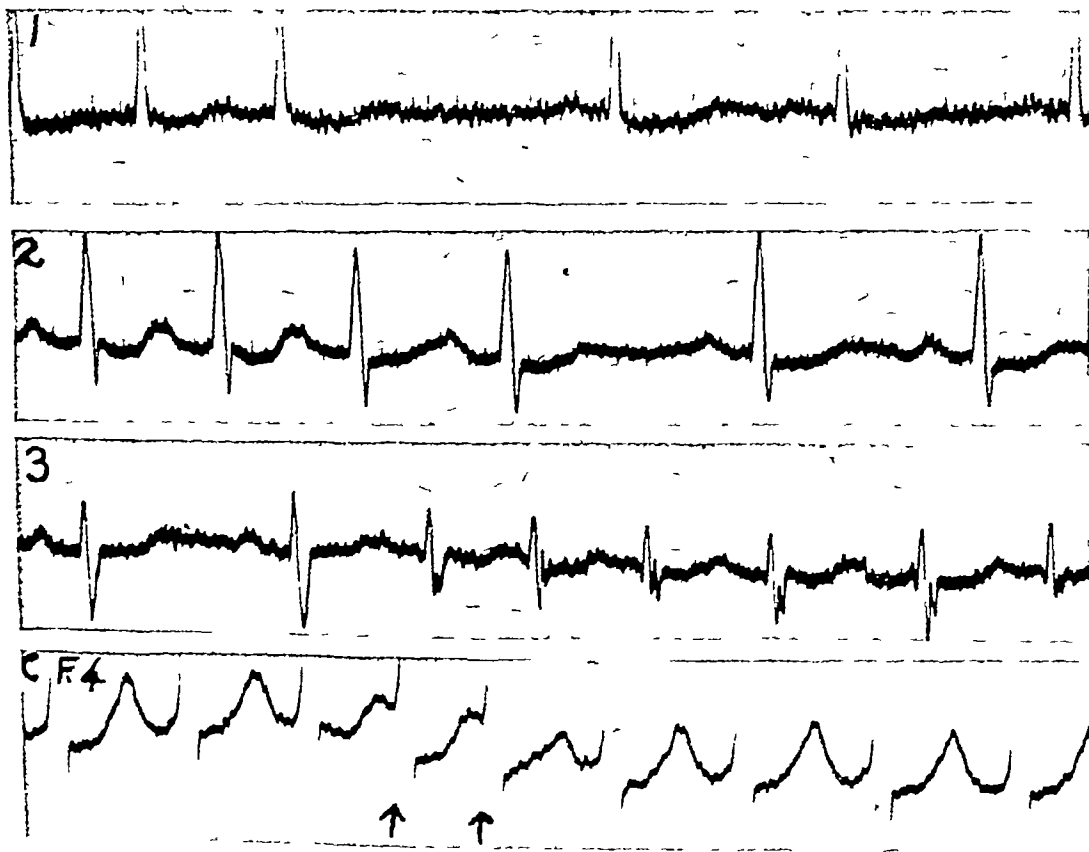


FIG 3—Case 3 Lead I shows the end of a period of rapid beating with the return of sinus rhythm, lead II shows an end of rapid beating and lead III the beginning of rapid beating with polymorphic ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin. The irregular arrhythmia has been called paroxysmal auricular fibrillation. CF4 shows two interruptions by R waves of the antecedent T waves. Time intervals 0.05 sec.

deflection of a complex is interrupted by the initial sharp downward deflection of the next complex

Case 3, male, aged 56 years Myocardial degeneration and thyrotoxicosis Paroxysmal supra-ventricular tachycardia probably auricular fibrillation Admitted with breathlessness on exertion, of 6 months' duration Thyroidectomy was followed by improvement in the physical condition The basic rhythm is regular and of sinus origin At times there is an irregular tachycardia with ventricular complexes which do not differ greatly from those found when the rhythm is regular (Fig 3) The irregular rhythm is associated with variations in the shape of the ventricular complexes which, however, are supraventricular in origin It is not possible entirely to eliminate multiple premature auricular systoles as a cause for the tachycardia but auricular fibrillation seems more likely

Case 4, male, aged 71 years Myocardial degeneration, auricular fibrillation, multiple premature ventricular systoles Admitted to hospital because of a confused mental state He was reasonably active for his years Irregular rhythm due to auricular fibrillation and short runs of paroxysmal ventricular tachycardia Interruptions of T waves by R waves occur frequently Some of these are

interruptions of ventricular complexes of supra ventricular origin by premature ventricular complexes, others are of premature ventricular complexes by other premature ventricular complexes (Fig 4A) Instances were observed of the interruption of a premature ventricular complex by a ventricular complex of supraventricular origin (Fig 4 A and B) and of a ventricular complex of supraventricular origin by another ventricular complex of supraventricular origin

Case 5, male, aged 71 years Myocardial degeneration, auricular bigeminy, sinus bigeminy, multiple premature ventricular systoles Admitted because of a right-sided inguinal hernia and found to have cardiac irregularity In the last four months before admission there had been shortness of breath on exertion but no swelling of the ankles (See Fig 5)

Case 6, male, aged 58 years Cardiac infarction Electrocardiograms showed a cardiac infarction and multiple premature ventricular systoles with interruptions of T waves by R waves (Fig 6)

Case 7, female, aged 40 years Myocardial damage of unknown origin, multiple premature systoles Numerous examples of ventricular premature systoles interrupting beats of normal sinus origin

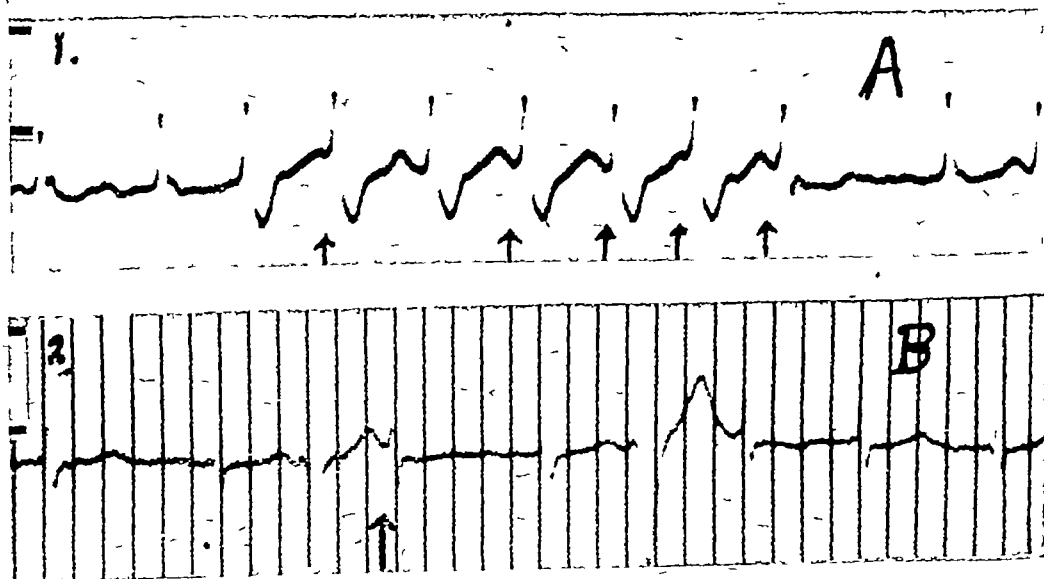
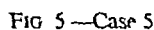


Fig 4—Case 4
(A) Auricular fibrillation The trace shows a run of six premature ventricular systoles followed by what appears to be a ventricular complex of supraventricular origin interrupting the T wave of the last premature ventricular systole
(B) Auricular fibrillation The trace shows the T wave of a premature ventricular complex interrupted by a ventricular complex which is clearly of supraventricular origin. Time intervals 0.1 sec



(B) The lower trace is a heart sound record and the lower trace a simultaneous lead II electrocardiogram, both taken using a pair of Matthews' oscillographs. The latter shows a supraventricular bigeminy with wandering pacemaker and two premature ventricular systoles of which the second interrupts the first. The heart sounds alternate in intensity during the bigeminy, the louder sound following the longer diastole. The premature ventricular systoles give rise to weaker heart sounds. The second premature systole leads to a second heart sound. This raises the question of whether some filling of the heart took place between the two premature ventricular beats. Time trace 0.2 sec.

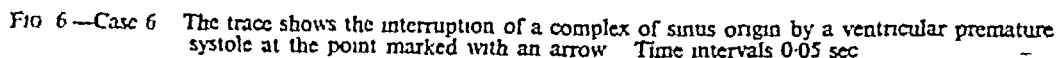




FIG 7—Case 7 The trace shows interruptions of the T waves of complexes of sinus origin by the R waves of premature ventricular systoles Time intervals 0.1 sec

(Fig 7) Examples were also encountered of polymorphic ventricular premature systoles interrupting other premature ventricular systoles. Apart from the numerous premature beats the electrocardiogram would have passed as normal.

Case 8, male, aged 77 years. Cardiac asthma, general congestive heart failure, benign arterial hypertension. Shortness of breath on exertion for two years, swelling of the ankles for one month, and extreme nocturnal breathlessness for four days prior to admission. The blood pressure was 220/108. The basic rhythm, of sinus origin, was interrupted by frequent polymorphic premature ventricular systoles occurring at various times after the antecedent complexes. Interruptions of T waves by R waves were frequent (Fig 8).

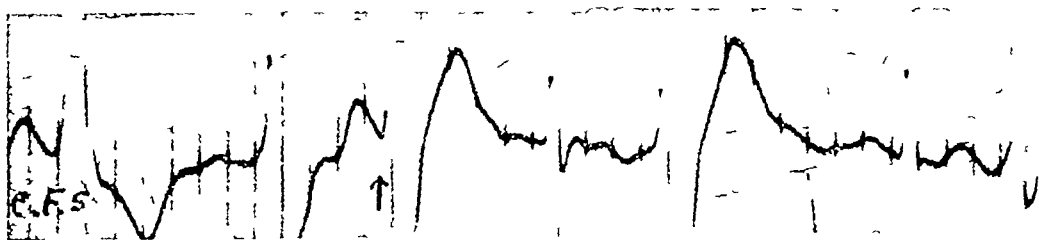


FIG 8—Case 8 The trace shows interruption of the terminal deflection of an ectopic ventricular complex by the initial deflection of another ectopic ventricular complex Time intervals 0.1 sec

Case 9, male, aged 63 years. Posterior basal infarct. One month after the onset of the infarction, the patient, apparently well on the way to recovery, was telling the ward sister how well he felt and suddenly dropped back dead, apparently from ventricular flutter or fibrillation. The autopsy revealed a posterior basal cardiac infarction. Cardiograms showed interruption of ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin by ectopic ventricular complexes. The premature beats occurred at varying intervals after the previous beats but were not polymorphic.

Case 10, male, aged 77 years. Angina of effort, old cardiac infarction. Admitted because of an

attack of pain which woke him in the early morning and continued for some hours in the absence of physical exertion, no other clinical evidence of recent cardiac infarction. Cardiograms suggested an old myocardial infarction but no recent damage. The T wave was inverted in leads I and IV, and in lead III there was a premature ventricular systole interrupting the T wave during its descent (no other abnormality and regular rhythm with normal P-R interval).

Case 11, male, aged 79 years. Recent cardiac infarction. This patient began with vomiting, and pain in the chest. He was obviously very ill and cyanosed, his condition deteriorated and he died. Cardiograms show a basic sinus rhythm with normal P-R interval interrupted by numerous premature

ventricular systoles. The QRS-T complexes were approximately 0.1 sec in duration. There was a 6 mm Q wave in lead III with a sharply inverted T wave. A clear interruption of the T wave of a complex of sinus origin by an ectopic ventricular complex occurred in lead I.

Case 12, male, aged 77 years. Myocardial degeneration. Short of breath and unable to hurry on level ground for six years prior to admission. Signs of congestive heart failure were minimal. Sinus rhythm, but premature ventricular systoles occurred at fairly frequent intervals and several quite distinct interruptions of complexes of supraventricular origin by ectopic ventricular complexes occur.

Case 13, female, aged 78 years *Cardiac asthma, auricular fibrillation, hypostatic pneumonia* Admitted with severe breathlessness which was thought to be the result of cardiac asthma. In hospital she developed a hypostatic pneumonia and died. Auricular fibrillation QRS-T complexes of supraventricular origin sometimes occurred sufficiently early to interrupt the antecedent T wave of other supraventricular complexes about half-way down their descents.

Case 14, female, aged 70 years *Acute exacerbation of chronic bronchitis, congestive heart failure, auricular fibrillation* The blood pressure was 180/80. The congestive failure was treated by digitalis, the bronchitis improved, and the patient was discharged in fair condition. Auricular fibrillation in CF2 and CF4 distinct interruptions of complexes of supraventricular origin by other complexes of supraventricular origin occurred. There was great variation in the shape of the ventricular complexes.

Case 15, female, aged 73 years *Auricular fibrillation* Auricular fibrillation and interference with conduction in the branch bundles. Complexes of supraventricular origin were interrupted on occasion by other complexes of supraventricular origin and at times by ectopic ventricular complexes.

Case 16, female, aged 66 years *Paroxysmal auricular fibrillation* In two instances R waves were present on the descent of the antecedent T waves

showed a basic sinus rhythm, the ectopic ventricular complexes were polymorphic but falling, in regard to shape, into two main types of which one type only gave rise to interruptions of the T waves of sinus beats.

FINDINGS IN THESE CASES

The principal features of the 17 cases recorded with R waves interrupting T waves are set out in Table I. Most patients were in the later years of life, ten being over 70 and seven between 40 and 69. There was a preponderance of males. Thirteen exhibited premature ventricular systoles, in one of these, only a single premature ventricular systole was present in the short length of tracing available, in the remaining 12 two or more ventricular premature systoles occurred, in tracings taken with the same lead, and the premature beats were polymorphic in 11 cases (Fig 7 and 8). Of these 12 cases, 11 showed premature beats starting at irregular intervals of time after the antecedent normal beats. In the remaining case there were only two premature ventricular complexes and a conclusion as to whether the time interval was constant or variable could not be reached. Of the 12 cases with more than one premature systole 8 showed examples of pairs of premature beats occurring together. Some of these showed groups of three together and 3 of the 8 showed runs of paroxysmal tachycardia of five or more complexes (Fig 2). In two of the cases where no such pairing of the ventricular premature systoles was discovered a considerable length of tracing was

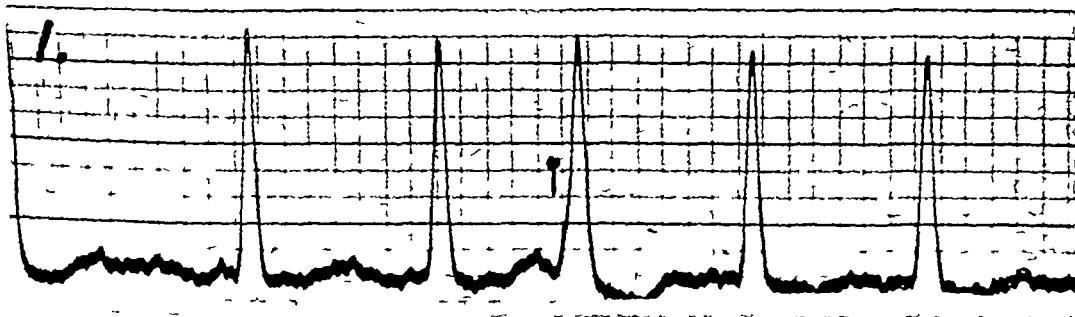


FIG 9—Case 16 Auricular fibrillation. T wave interruption. Time intervals 0.05 sec

(Fig 9) The QRS-T complexes showed variations in shape. There were no premature ventricular systoles.

Case 17, female, aged 62 *Melancholia, multiple premature systoles* Admitted for electrical convulsive therapy on account of mental depression, hallucinations, and delusions. Electrocardiograms

available and it seems likely that pairing of the beats was not occurring in these cases. In the other two cases only short lengths of tracing were available and pairing may or may not have been present at other times.

There were six cases with auricular fibrillation and it is interesting that all six showed polymorphic ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin.

(Fig 3) This polymorphism is not usual in ordinary cases of auricular fibrillation and would appear to be a feature of cases in which R waves appear upon T waves. Two of the six cases with auricular fibrillation also exhibited ectopic ventricular systoles and these also exhibited polymorphism. It was noted, but only when finally analysing the results, that three out of the six cases with auricular fibrillation (Fig 3) sometimes showed sinus rhythm, this seems to be a higher proportion of paroxysmal auricular fibrillation than one would expect to encounter in a random collection of auricular fibrillation cases. From the above paragraphs it will be seen that in the 16 cases where it was possible to examine the phenomenon, polymorphism occurred in 15, being manifest either in ectopic ventricular complexes or in ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin or in both of these.

The four types of interruption that should occur theoretically have been found in the present series. Five patients were found in whom ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin interrupted other ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin and in one additional patient this probably occurred. These were also patients with auricular fibrillation and no such interruption occurred in any of the patients with sinus rhythm. Interruption of ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin by ectopic ventricular complexes (Fig 6) and of ectopic ventricular complexes by other ectopic ventricular complexes (Fig 1 and 4) both occurred fairly frequently, there being 9 patients who definitely, and three more who probably, exhibited the former phenomenon, and six patients who definitely exhibited the latter. Only one patient showed ectopic ventricular complexes being interrupted by ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin (Fig 4) and this, as might be expected, was in a patient with both auricular fibrillation and multiple ectopic ventricular systoles.

One patient exhibited four types of interruption. Two patients exhibited two kinds of interruption and three patients probably had two types of interruption.

EVIDENCE OF INTERRUPTION OF T WAVES BY R WAVES

Some examples of the interruption of T waves by R waves have been presented. It may be considered that there has been an unmistakable interruption when a ventricular complex of well-defined shape has its latter end cut off by the premature development of an R wave. In most cases complete ventricular complexes can be discovered which, up to the point of interruption, are identical with the interrupted complex, and a comparison of the com-

plete and interrupted complexes makes it quite clear that there has been an interruption (Fig 1). The distance between the R wave of the interrupted complex and the R wave of the interrupting complex, ordinarily, will be less than the length of the complete QRS-T complex. In patients who show the more striking interruptions of T waves by R waves there are usually in addition a large number of interruptions which, however, are not so convincing—those where the R wave arises low down on the descent of the T wave, those where extra cardiac potentials by deflecting the isoelectric base line are altering the shape of the complexes, and those where the interruption appears to be due to a prolongation of the interrupted QRS-T complex as much as to prematurity of the R wave.

OTHER FEATURES OF CASES R WAVES ON T WAVES

Several of the examples of R waves on T waves have been encountered in cases of cardiac infarction especially about the end of the first week and the interruptions then are caused by premature ventricular systoles (Fig 1 and 6).

In cases which are not cardiac infarctions a variety of clinical conditions have been associated with the appearance of R waves on T waves. Most of these patients show evidence of substantial myocardial damage. In addition, there is a similarity in the electrocardiographic features of all these cases which is not merely accidental.

(1) In 11 out of 12 cases, the ectopic ventricular complexes show variations in the shape (polymorphism). These variations in shape, however, are encountered not only when the premature ventricular systoles arise, as is usual in these patients, from multiple ectopic foci but also among ventricular complexes which arise in response to stimuli of supraventricular origin (Fig 3).

(2) Ectopic ventricular beats often occur in pairs or triplets or in runs of ventricular paroxysmal tachycardia.

(3) The distances between premature beats and their antecedent normal complexes were variable. When pairs of ventricular premature systoles occur together, the distance between the two members of a pair is also a variable.

As will be seen later, the above changes may indicate increased excitability of the myocardium.

The recognition of the fact that cases exhibiting interruptions of T waves by R waves commonly showed the above features, has led to a more careful, and often fruitful, search for interruptions, more particularly in cases where (a) ventricular complexes are polymorphic and at variable intervals after the antecedent beat, (b) the heart rate is fast and

irregular, and (c) where some of the R waves arise close to the descending limb of the T wave *

THE REFRACTORY PERIOD OF CARDIAC MUSCLE

The presence of R waves on T waves indicates that a new wave of excitation may arise within the heart before the previous wave of excitation has ended. This statement has reference to the heart

U wave. In the course of some observations with Mr. Fastier, direct leads from the surface of the heart have been taken in the dog in the course of the experimental production of ventricular flutter by the administration of amarin followed by adrenaline. In the stage preceding the onset of ventricular flutter we have observed interruption of the terminal deflection of these (direct lead) electrograms (Fig 10)

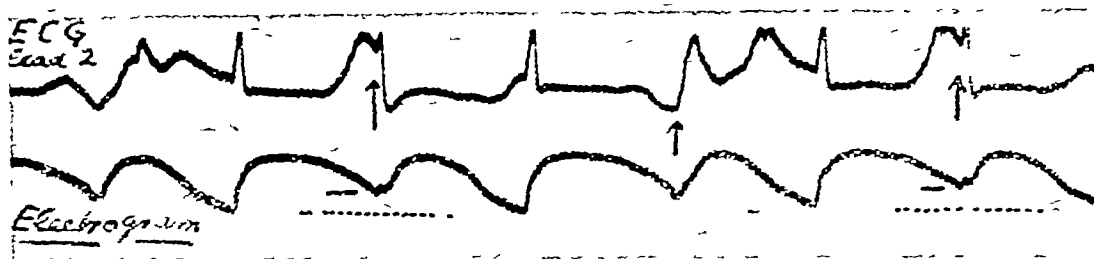


FIG 10—Dog (17 kg 63 g), under sodium barbitone Vagi intact. The upper trace is an electrocardiogram which shows R waves appearing on T waves just before the onset of ventricular flutter, which was induced with adrenaline (25 μ g) following treatment with amarin.

The lower trace is a simultaneously recorded electrogram, picked up from an electrode that was close to the A-V septum on the left side of the heart. This suggests practically continuous electrical activity in the ventricle at the stage of chaotic rhythm. Note that the electrogram does not always settle down to a base line, where the T wave of the electrocardiogram has been interrupted by the succeeding R wave, the new electrogram may begin prematurely, as judged by the fact that the preceding complex does not fall to the level noted with the alternate series of complexes.

as a whole and in certain cases at least the termination of the T wave does not represent the passing off of the wave of excitation throughout the entire heart. For example, in the case of a left ventricular premature systole, the right side of the heart is the last part to be excited and the terminal part of the T wave represents the passing off of the wave of excitation from the right side. It is not so easy to explain the interruption of the T waves of a supraventricular complex in this way for then, apart from branch bundle block, the T wave represents the passing off of the wave of excitation on both sides of the heart. Such arguments do not go much further than indicating that we cannot eliminate the possibility that a single cardiac muscle fibre may be capable of responding to a new wave of excitation before the previous wave of excitation has ended.

The observations of Moe, Harris, and Wiggers (1942) indicate clearly that a suitable electrical stimulus applied to a ventricle during or just before the descent of the T wave leads to a wave of excitation in the heart muscle, but after such a delay that the resulting R wave came after the termination of the T wave and commonly in the vicinity of the

by the succeeding wave of excitation, an observation that corresponds with the appearance of R waves on T waves but suggests that the phenomenon can take place even within the circumscribed area of the heart from which the electrogram is recorded. It is not unlikely therefore, that cardiac muscle fibres are capable, under certain circumstances, of responding to a new wave of excitation before the previous wave of excitation has ended.

EXCITABILITY OF THE MYOCARDIUM AS THE UNDERLYING CAUSE

The data concerning the 17 patients whose cases are reported suggest the probability that "increased excitability" of the myocardium may be an important underlying cause for the appearance of R waves superimposed upon T waves. It is necessary to consider further the meanings of the word excitability as applied to cardiac muscle. Increased excitability has been used in reference to an increased disposition of the cardiac muscle to originate new rhythms. More precisely, however, it should refer to the ease with which the myocardium responds when a stimulus is applied to it. No doubt, under clinical conditions, these two phenomena are difficult to differentiate from each other but evidence suggesting excitability in one sense or another is present in the great majority of cases here quoted. In Cases 1, 2,

* An additional 8 cases, including one with paroxysms of ventricular flutter (electrocardiographic), have been encountered while this paper was in press.

TABLE I

Case	Age	Type of Interruption †				Polyomorphic Complexes	Interval after antecedent beat	Ecopic Vent Complexes in runs of 2 or more	Variability of Interval between successive beats	Polyomorphic Ventricular Complexes of Supraventric Origin	Types of Rhythm Encountered	Other Electrocardiographic Evidence of Myocardial Damage	Clinical Features	Progress of Patient	Long or short Lengths of Tracing Available	
		Type of Interruption †														
		S by S	V by V	S by V	V by V											
"Myocardial Degeneration" Cases																
1	59	?	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	Sinus prem v s Sinus prem v s v par tachy	T I isoelectric T II low or inverted Intermittent B B I Indefinite	Recent infarction, congestive failure large heart Recent infarction, good clin evidence of infarction	D S R	L S	
6	58	+	+	+	+	0	+	0	n a	0	Sinus prem v s Sinus prem v s	Positive	Recent infarction, good clin evidence of infarction	R	L	
9	73	+	+	+	0	0	+	0	n a	0	Sinus prem v s Sinus prem v s	Low T I Positive	Recent infarction confirmed P M	D S	S	
10	77	+	+	+	n a	0	n a	0	n a	0	Sinus prem v s Sinus prem v s	T I, T IV inverted Q I deep	Old infarction, angina of effort	D	S	
11	79	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	n a	0	Sinus prem v s	Positive	Recent infarction	D	S	
5	71	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	Sinus aur bigem prem v s Sinus prem v s Sinus prem v s	Low T I Inverted T III Isoelectric T I	Myocard degen Myocard degen, gallop rhythm, edema ankles Myocard degen, art. hyper tension, card asthma	D S R R	L L L	
12	77	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	n a	0	Sinus prem v s prem a s Sinus prem v s	T III isoelectric	Myocard degen, gallop rhythm	R	L	
17	62	+	+	+	+	0	+	0	n a	0	Sinus prem v s	None	Melancholia, circulatory condition discovered incidentally	R	L	
3	56	+	n a	n a	n a	n a	n a	n a	n a	+	Sinus par aur fibrillation Aur fibr prem v s	T I, T II low biphasic Aur fibrillation	Thyro-cardiac improved by thyroidectomy	R	S	
4	71	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	Sinus par aur fibrillation Aur fibr prem v s	T III low	Confused mental state improved in hospital	R	L	
"Auricular Fibrillation Cases"																

TABLE 1—(continued)

	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100
13	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
14	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
15	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
16	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
17	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
18	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
19	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
20	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
21	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
22	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
23	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
24	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
25	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
26	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
27	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
28	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
29	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
30	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
31	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
32	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
33	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
34	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
35	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
36	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
37	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
38	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
39	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
40	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
41	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
42	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
43	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
44	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
45	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
46	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
47	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
48	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
49	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
50	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
51	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
52	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
53	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
54	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
55	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
56	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
57	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
58	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
59	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
60	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
61	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
62	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
63	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
64	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
65	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
66	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
67	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
68	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
69	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
70	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
71	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
72	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
73	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
74	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
75	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
76	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
77	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
78	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
79	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
80	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
81	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
82	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
83	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
84	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
85	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
86	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
87	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
88	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
89	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
90	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
91	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
92	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
93	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
94	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
95	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
96	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
97	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
98	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
99	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
100	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

† S by S—examples of ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin interrupted by other ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin
 S by V—examples of ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin interrupted by ectopic ventricular complexes
 V by S—examples of ectopic ventricular complexes interrupted by ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin
 V by V—examples of ectopic ventricular complexes interrupted by other ectopic ventricular complexes
 n a—not applicable D S—died suddenly D—died R—recovered

4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 12, and 17, it seems probable there is an increased tendency to originate new rhythms. Large numbers of premature ventricular systoles arise which, as judged from the shape of the complexes, originate from different foci. These ectopic beats occur at a variable time after the preceding beat and it may be thought from this that they probably result from the spontaneous activity of small parts of the cardiac muscle rather than from excitation of the ventricular muscle as the result of "re-entry" of impulses set up during the antecedent systole.

In contrast to this we have Cases 3, 13, 14, and 16, with auricular fibrillation and an abnormally rapid beating of the ventricles. It may well be thought that the conducting tissue (less probably, ventricular muscle) is responding more readily than usual to the stimuli coming down to it from the auricles.

Of the 17 cases, 6 are examples of cardiac infarction. In such cases the important pathological change in the myocardium is of comparatively recent origin. It is not surprising that in most cases where premature ventricular systoles are the result of a cardiac infarction the ectopic beats appear to arise from many foci. Likewise if these premature beats are arising spontaneously as the result of discharge from irritable foci, there is no obvious reason why they should develop at a fixed time after the antecedent normal complex and in fact, in none of the infarction cases here quoted, do we find the premature ventricular systoles at a fixed distance after the antecedent normal beat.

In the 6 cases of cardiac infarction described in this paper, R waves are found superimposed on T waves, but in most cases of infarction this phenomenon is not found.

R waves superimposed on T waves were found in a miscellaneous group of cardiac cases where there was no cardiac infarction. In some of these patients ectopic beats arising in the ventricles are responsible for most of the interrupted complexes. These premature ventricular complexes arise from several foci and at variable times after the antecedent complexes. It seems probable that there is increased excitability of the ventricular muscle due in these cases to causes other than cardiac

that the common factor is an increase in myocardial excitability (Cases 4, 5, 12, and 15) Some further evidence is given in the succeeding section

THE SUPERNORMAL PERIOD OF CARDIAC EXCITABILITY

As has been recognized for some time, there is a supernormal period in nerve at the time of the negative after-potential Adrian (1921) showed that a super-normal period could be demonstrated in the ventricle of the frog upon acidifying the fluid in which the tissue was immersed Wastl (1922) demonstrated supernormality in fatigued preparations - Cats anesthetized with barbiturates invariably showed the supernormal period subsequent to the relative refractory period (Hoff and Nahum, 1938) but decerebrated cats rarely showed such super-normality (Eccles and Hoff, 1934) The super-normal period in the cat's ventricle may coincide with the terminal part of the T wave and when a U wave is present it falls during this stage Wastl (1922) considers that the U wave is in fact the terminal part of the ventricular complex

It is interesting to consider whether any of the examples of R waves upon T waves are distributed in such a manner that the interrupting beats fall chiefly within a phase of super-normality Super-normality might be concerned also in the frequency with which the ventricle is stimulated from auricles in a state of auricular fibrillation If such were the case we would be dealing, presumably, with a super-normality of the conducting tissue Super-normality of the conducting tissue has been postulated by Lewis and Master (1924) and by Goldenberg and Rothberger (1936) Super-normality might be exhibited in relation to premature ventricular systoles and might determine whether a stimulus arising from an irritable focus would be effective and lead to a premature ventricular complex during the supernormal phase of the antecedent heart beat

In the cases described in this paper, most premature beats develop either in the U wave region or on the descent of the T wave In some cases all the premature systoles are confined to these parts of the cardiac cycle An example of this is found in Case 7 At times when this patient was not displaying R waves on T waves the premature beats occurred a little later in the cardiac cycle and mostly in the region of the U wave In some other patients (Case 8) the premature beats could occur during a greater part of the cardiac cycle but were concentrated particularly in the region of the U wave or on the descent of the T wave Similarly, when premature beats interrupted other premature beats or were followed by other premature beats, the

R wave of the second beat occurred very soon after the end of the T wave or during its descent The incidence of the premature beats in these patients could be explained as being largely determined by a super-normal period both in the case of premature beats following normal beats and in premature beats following other premature beats In most patients where interruptions of premature beats by premature beats is observed, examples of the interruptions of normal beats by premature beats are also observed The interruption is not so much determined by the nature of the complexes concerned as by a state of the cardiac muscle Probably, the state of the cardiac muscle that allows the effective generation of these very premature ectopic beats is a state of super-normal excitability of the myocardium It has been stated by Katz (1946) that a super-normal phase does not occur in the normal human heart but may be present in abnormal hearts Scherf and Scholt (1939) also describe a super-normal phase in man The observations reported in this paper are consistent with this view The super-normal phase has been demonstrated in experiments on healthy cats but it has not yet been made clear whether under experimental conditions the heart was exhibiting a phenomenon that would not be obtained under more normal conditions

RELATIONSHIPS OF ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL EVENTS WHEN T WAVES ARE INTERRUPTED BY R WAVES

It is not certain that the relationship between electrical and mechanical events in the heart is constant (Katz, 1946) and it may be changed both during health and in disease In a number of our cases in which R waves were encountered on T waves phonocardiograms or alternatively ballistocardiograms were recorded simultaneously with the electrocardiograms In Cases 5 (Fig 5A, B) and 7 it was found that, where the T wave was interrupted by the R wave of the premature systole, the intensity of the first sound produced by the very premature systole was less than that produced by normal heart contractions or by premature contractions that occur later in the cardiac cycle Sometimes the weak first sound was followed by a second sound, in other cases no recorded second sound was observed In those cases where a second sound was associated with a very early premature systole it is realized, with some surprise, that the premature beat must have caused a discharge of blood from the heart and the opening of the semilunar valves must have been sufficient to produce a second sound on closing again Either the antecedent beat had not emptied the ventricles completely or some degree

of filling of the ventricles must have taken place at a time corresponding to the lower third of the descent of the T wave. Other phonocardiograms gave results that were not dissimilar. In Case 5 several ballistocardiograms were taken (Fig 5) and these showed, as expected, that the output from the heart was much less when a premature systole occurred very early in the cardiac cycle, but in all traces taken the ballistocardiographic results suggested that some blood had been discharged into the aorta even during the very premature systoles.

THE CLINICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF R WAVES ON T WAVES AND INDICATIONS FOR TREATMENT

A survey of published electrocardiograms shows that R waves on T waves are often seen shortly before the onset of clinical ventricular flutter, also before the onset of experimental ventricular flutter produced in a variety of ways, and in this series R waves on T waves occurred in 6 patients with cardiac infarction of whom 2 died suddenly. These points indicate the possibility that the appearance of R waves on T waves may be of bad prognostic import. It would appear that the condition occurs chiefly among cases where there is good evidence of increased cardiac excitability and of substantial myocardial damage. Many of the patients were elderly. Naturally enough where there is already evidence of myocardial disease one may expect a poor prognosis, the question we must ask is whether the finding of an R wave on a T wave, in itself worsens the prognosis in these cases. On this question there is insufficient evidence but nevertheless the distinct indication that the subject deserves further study, first because of the known association, under experimental conditions, between the presence of R waves on T waves and ventricular flutter and fibrillation, secondly because in the clinical material studied there had been instances of sudden death that could be explained reasonably as examples of ventricular flutter or fibrillation. The matter is not without practical importance since preliminary observations suggest that the tendency to this particular manifestation can be arrested or greatly diminished by treatment with quinidine, digitalis, or strophanthus, more especially quinidine.

Unfortunately the possibility of a useful method of treatment did not emerge at the outset of this investigation, but in two cases of cardiac infarction exhibiting the presence of R waves on T waves the administration of quinidine arrested the premature systoles, and as premature ventricular systoles had been responsible for the interruptions of the antecedent complexes, this phenomenon was thereby eliminated. In the first (Case 6) the patient made an

uninterrupted recovery from the infarction but was readmitted some 3 months later with a second and fatal infarction. On this second occasion there were no premature systoles noted. In the second (Case 9) the administration of quinidine prevented the premature systoles and eliminated the interruption of complexes. Unfortunately a hæmatemesis necessitated withdrawal of the quinidine whereupon the premature ventricular complexes recurred. One month after the onset of the infarction the patient was saying how well he felt and he suddenly stopped and was dead in a few seconds. This would appear to be an example of ventricular flutter. In Case 7 the patient was in moderately good condition with little breathlessness and a moderate exercise tolerance, but a gallop rhythm. She was treated with quinidine, this stopped almost all ectopic beats, but unfortunately the drug had to be stopped as she experienced continuous vertigo and headache. On administering strophanthus by intravenous injection the number of premature systoles were much reduced, and those which occurred were found later in the cardiac cycle and after the termination of the T wave. With eight tablets daily of 1/500 grain of strophanthus by mouth, also, the premature systoles were much reduced in number. In view of the increased excitability of the ventricle brought about by substances such as digitalis and strophanthus, 1/200 of a grain of atropine was given thrice daily at the start, this to some extent at least, serves as an anti-fibrillating agent. The patient was much improved and was discharged from hospital.

It would seem that the administration of quinidine, digitalis and strophanthus in such cases deserves a trial. Perhaps quinidine is the most likely to prove satisfactory and digitalis and strophanthus are probably potentially dangerous. In any case where cardiac infarction has taken place neither digitalis nor strophanthus should be given unless there is congestive heart failure.

SUMMARY

Seventeen cases are described in which R waves appear on the descent of T waves. They appear to be examples of an electrocardiographic syndrome characterized by a group of related abnormalities some of which are explicable in terms of increased myocardial excitability.

The presence of an R wave on a T wave indicates that a new wave of excitation starts before the previous wave has ended. It is convenient in these circumstances to speak of a ventricular complex being interrupted before its completion.

Ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin may be interrupted by other ventricular complexes.

of supraventricular origin or by ectopic ventricular complexes. Ectopic ventricular complexes may be interrupted by ventricular complexes of supraventricular origin or by other ectopic ventricular complexes.

R waves on T waves may occur with ectopic ventricular systoles, paroxysmal ventricular tachycardia, auricular fibrillation, and auricular paroxysmal tachycardia. They may occur in cardiac infarction. Theoretically they might occur with ectopic auricular systoles and auricular flutter.

When R waves on T waves are due to ectopic ventricular complexes, these are almost always polymorphic and presumably multifocal. The ectopic ventricular complexes occur at varying intervals after the antecedent beat and there is a tendency for them to occur in runs of two or three or more beats. Even when the presence of R waves is brought about by a supraventricular rhythm (usually auricular fibrillation), polymorphic ventricular complexes are often found.

In view of the fact that R waves on T waves are

frequent precursors of clinical and experimental ventricular flutter and ventricular fibrillation, it is desirable to consider the significance of this finding for prognosis in man. A few of the patients in this series have died suddenly.

It is probably advantageous to use quinidine in such patients with multiple premature ventricular systoles. This abolished the interruption of T waves by R waves in all of five cases. Digitalis and strophanthus also abolish the interruptions in some cases, but have theoretical objections.

The significance of this phenomenon in relation to the refractory period of heart muscle, the super-normal phase of cardiac excitability, and the mechanical changes associated with very premature systoles are discussed.

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LAY CARDIOLOGISTS

BY

TERENCE EAST

"For so to interpose a little ease" is well enough in these times, even in a scientific journal. It is hardly fair to complete the quotation, for the "surmise" of the lay writer is often far from "false".* From time to time, in desultory reading, one's attention is arrested by a good description by a lay author of a clinical condition, those which follow are of cardiovascular interest. The description by W. N. P. Barbellion of his disseminated sclerosis in the *Journal of a Disappointed Man* once attracted much interest. He also gave an account of his extrasystoles.

"Bad heart attack all day. Intermittency is very refined torture to one who wants to live very badly. Your pump goes 'dot and carry one,' or say, 'misses a stitch,' what time you breathe deep, begin to shake your friend's hand, and make a farewell speech. Then it goes on again and you order another pint of beer. It is a fractious animal within the cage of my thorax, and I never know when it is going to escape and make off with my precious life between its teeth."

The alarm that these harmless disturbances occasion was also well described by Hugh Walpole in his novel *The Old Ladies*.

"A new sound that May had never heard in that house before. It was the dripping of a tap like someone counting time—1, 2, 3, 4, then a pause, then several drips together. May began to count—she counted to ten and after that so many came together that she could count no longer. She lay, the sweat on her forehead, her body trembling, her heart running and jumping and missing, and jumping and running. She heard it so plainly that it seemed that it must be with her now beside her bed, the running tap."

There are many good clinical references in Kipling's writings. The only one of cardiovascular interest is the description in *The Light that Failed* of what would appear to be a patient with aortic regurgitation who has just climbed a flight of stairs,

* "For so to interpose a little ease let our frail hearts dally with false surmise"—Milton's *Lycidas*

"His lips were parted and pale, and there were deep pouches under the eyes. 'Weak heart,' said Dick to himself as he shook hands, 'very weak heart. His pulse is shaking his fingers'."

Samuel Johnson diagnosed the cardiac origin of his asthma correctly. Writing to Dr. Brocklesby, his physician, after a visit to Lichfield, he remarked, "The asthma has no abatement. Opiates stop the fit, so that I can sit and sometimes be easy, but they do not procure me the power of motion. I am looking into Floyer, who lived with his asthma to almost his ninetieth year. His book by want of order is obscure, and his asthma not of the same kind with mine." Later in the year he died of heart failure, and the autopsy showed that he had had high blood pressure. His well-known account of his stroke which he had had the year before agrees with this.

"I went to bed, and in a short time waked and sat up, as has long been my custom, when I felt a confusion and indistinctness in my head, which lasted, I suppose, about half a minute. I was alarmed, and prayed God, that however he might afflict my body, he would spare my understanding. I had no pain, and so little dejection in this dreadful state, that I wondered at my own apathy, and considered that perhaps death itself, when it should come, would excite less horror than seems now to attend it."

"In order to rouse the vocal organs, I took two drams. Wine has been celebrated for the production of eloquence. I put myself into violent motion, and I think repeated it, but all was in vain. I then went to bed, and strange as it may seem, I think slept. When I saw light, it was time to contrive what I should do. Though God stopped my speech, he left me my hand, I enjoyed a mercy which was not granted to my dear friend Lawrence, who now perhaps overlooks me as I am writing, and rejoices that I have what he wanted. My first note was necessarily to my servant, who came in talking, and could not immediately comprehend why he should read what I put into his hands."

"I then wrote a card to Mr. Allen, that I might have a discreet friend at hand, to act as occasion

should require In penning this note, I had some difficulty, my hand, I knew not how or why, made wrong letters I then wrote to Dr Taylor to come to me, and bring Dr Heberden and I sent to Dr Brocklesby, who is my neighbour My physicians are very friendly, and give me great hopes, but you may imagine my situation I have so far recovered my vocal powers, as to repeat the Lord's Prayer with no very imperfect articulation"

He made rapid recovery, and had "leave to wash the cantharides" from his head a fortnight after the stroke, which was no doubt hypertensive encephalopathy

In *Treasure Island* there is a short vivid description of an apoplectic attack "I heard a loud fall in the parlour, and running in, beheld the Captain lying full length on the floor He was breathing very loud and hard, but his eyes were closed, and his face a horrible colour"

Whether the philosopher Seneca* really had angina pectoris is doubtful He described an attack in these words (*Epistule Morales LIX*) "But I have been assigned, so to speak, to one special ailment The attack is of very brief duration, like that of a squall at sea, it usually ends within an hour I have passed through all the ills and dangers of the flesh, but nothing seems to me more troublesome than this And naturally so, for anything else may be called illness, but this is a sort of continued 'last gasp' Hence physicians call it 'practising how to die'" As he lived long after and died by his own hand ultimately, perhaps his "meditatio mortis" was really bronchial asthma In the *Swan of Litchfield* by J E Pearson, there is an excellent account of angina of effort, which culminated in a fatal attack on stooping Anne Seward, the heroine of the book, describes the death of her old friend Mr Saville, which took place on August 16, 1803

"In April he began to complain, at times, of a stricture in his breast—a slight pain there, and a difficulty in breathing on going upstairs, or uphill A disorder so entirely new to his frame startled me, but neither of us supposed the symptoms dangerous His appetite, his spirits good, and the malady apparently trivial and infrequent, yet alas! I am now convinced these were the presage of the disease which destroyed him" He had been dressing for a party "Soon after he cut a corn, which pained him, and in that operation had been stooping over his stomach some time, when suddenly a tremendous seizure of the late kind attacked him, and in a quarter of an hour struck him from the land of the living"

The following passage from *Middlemarch* describes what might well have been a painless attack of myocardial infarction

"Dorothea had not looked away from her own table when she heard the loud bang of a book on the floor, and turning quickly saw Mr Casaubon on the library steps clinging forward as if he were in some bodily distress She started up and bounded towards him in an instant, he was evidently in great straits for breath Jumping on a stool she got close to his elbow and said with her whole soul melted into tender alarm—"Can you lean on me, dear?" He was still for two or three minutes which seemed endless to her—unable to speak or move, gasping for breath - When he at last descended the three steps and fell backwards into the large chair, he no longer gasped, but seemed helpless and about to faint"

His physician, Mr Lydgate, makes his diagnosis and prognosis "My conclusions are doubly uncertain, uncertain not only because of my fallibility, but because diseases of the heart are eminently difficult to found predictions on I believe you are suffering from what is called fatty degeneration of the heart which was first divined and explored by Lennec It is my duty to tell you that death from this disease is often sudden At the same time, no such result can be predicted Your condition may be consistent with a tolerably comfortable life for another fifteen years or even more"

Mr Casaubon was found dead sitting in his summer house, not long after this The prognosis which George Eliot puts into the mouth of the doctor is cleverly worded, and would be a model of instruction for a student

An atypical attack of coronary occlusion seems to be the subject of one of Cowper's letters (May 1785)

"Mr Ashburner, the elder, went to London on Tuesday sennight in perfect health and in high spirits, so as to be remarkably cheerful, and was brought home in a hearse the Friday following Soon after his arrival in town, he complained of an acute pain in his elbow, another in his shoulder, then in both shoulders, was blooded, took his doses of such medicine as an apothecary thought might do him good, and died on Thursday morning at ten o'clock. It is not common, however, for men at the age of thirty-six to die so suddenly," he comments, in those days, too, early cases appear to have occurred, one may remark.

In Horace Walpole's letters there are many medical references, chiefly on the subject of gout. There is one which may be included here In one he laments the death of his friend Mr Chute, also a victim of gout, in a letter to Sir Horace Mann in Florence

* Translation by R M Gunmere (Loeb series)

"I was never alarmed till last summer when he had a low lingering fever and sickness, and pain in his breast with returns of the recurrent palpitation. On Thursday last I was told he was very ill, I found him in bed, he had so violent pain in his breast that two days before he had sent for Dr Thomas, who had given him one hundred drops of laudanum and asafœtida. Mr Chute said 'It is not gout, I have had my palpitation and fear it is something of a polypus'."

He died suddenly. Walpole comments "It certainly was a polypus, his side grew immediately as black as ink." If this account is correct it might possibly have been a dissecting aneurysm, with rupture into the pleura.

To turn to more modern writers, there is a first-rate account of the symptoms of cardiac infarction in *Time Must Stop* by Aldous Huxley.

'And then suddenly the pain was like a red hot poker thro' his chest. He felt dizzy and a whirling blackness obscured the outside world. He lowered himself unsteadily onto the seat and almost immediately felt a good deal better. Just as his arm was at full stretch the pain returned—but in a new form for now it had become, in some indescribable way, obscene as well as agonizing. And all at once he found himself panting for breath, and in the clutch of a new terror more intense than any he had ever experienced before. Then all at once the pain shot down his left arm, nauseating, disgusting, like being hit in the wind."

Sparkenbroke by Charles Morgan provides another good description of an attack of angina brought on by cold.

"In the evening, a little before dusk, while he was washing in cold water, he received warning that a paroxysm was about to seize him. A stiffness of neck and shoulder was followed by a deep aching within the left arm, and, after a little interval, by an

agony within the leg as though a wedge were being driven into the bone's marrow and the bone itself split. He had dragged himself from the washstand to his bed and covered himself, for he was half naked, his body still wet and now bitterly cold. As the pain increased, the leg stiffened, his back arched, his arm, beyond his will, was twisted under his back, and he cried out, for his ampoules of amyl nitrite were in the coat he had taken off. Bissett, hastening in, put one of these into a handkerchief and the handkerchief within the grip of his hand. He crushed it and inhaled. For a little while it gave relief. His body was loosened from its contortion and he lay against pillows, struggling for breath, asking that he might escape the greater paroxysm of the body itself.

"But the agony swept upon him afresh. There appeared in his mind an image of his chest as a bony shell within which the organs of his body were being compressed by cords. The organs themselves had individuality and voices, he heard them cry out, saw them twist and spurt, emptying their blood-red to a pearly and sweating grey. Far off, within the divisions of his fingers, were folds of linen, he raised them up, a handkerchief was twined against his nostrils, which sucked in its fumes. They had the smell of comfort, but a gust of torment swept them away, and he saw Bissett laying hot compresses on the bony shell, which heat could not penetrate. He gathered his knuckles into the softness of his throat."

The art of writing clinical descriptions is almost lost nowadays. The dry deserts of modern medical literature would make better reading if something of the charm of these lay authors could be imparted to them!

* Some of these excerpts, with others less pertinent to cardiology have appeared in the *King's College Hospital Gazette* (1947), Vol. 26.

EDITORIAL NOTE

What was almost certainly a paroxysm of auricular fibrillation has been described in the literature of the 1914-18 war, when the author was almost exhausted by the hardships involved in escaping on foot from a prisoner's camp. "Owing to the mud I began to feel frightfully tired. I staggered, and quite suddenly I collapsed and lay on the ground unable to move. I managed to put my hand over my heart and could feel that it was running most irregularly and misfiring in an extraordinary way. After about a quarter of an hour it got much better, so I had a

few mouthfuls of bread and went on again" (*The Escaping Club*, by A. J. Evans. John Lane, Lond., 1929, p. 224). The sudden collapse and the sudden recovery make it much more likely that this was paroxysmal fibrillation than a bout of frequent extrasystoles.

East has included cardiovascular disease and this allows a reference to the cardiovascular accidents that give more play to the lay writer because their results are more obvious in disorders of behaviour and mannerisms. Charles Dickens has many such

instances and shows by these, as in other ways, his great powers of accurate observation. The mental changes and change of temperament in Mrs Gargery in *Great Expectations* after a blow on the back of the head, and the detailed account of the degenerative changes following on cerebral arteriosclerosis on the Honourable Mrs Skewton, the mother of Mrs *Dombey*, are detailed and accurate and must have been based on personal observation of cases. These have been dealt with fully by Russell Brain in the *London Hospital Gazette*, January 1942. He is able to diagnose that Mrs Gargery had a severe contusion of the left temporo-parietal region causing jargon aphasia and word deafness and some traumatic dementia, with injury to the third or sixth cranial nerve leading to diplopia.

An equally detailed diagnosis of a hæmorrhage from a posterior inferior cerebellar artery in the case of James Armitage, alias Trevor (*The Gloria Scott*) could be made from the pages of *Conan Doyle*, but perhaps this is an unfair addition as medical authors have been excluded. Even so, readers who look for it may be surprised by the amount of accurate medical detail in the Sherlock Holmes stories. Major Sholto died from left ventricular failure, and orthopnoea is rightly emphasized as a leading symptom. "When we entered his room he was propped up with pillows and breathing heavily

grasping our hands he made a remarkable statement in a voice broken as much by emotion as by pain.

At this instant a horrible change came over his expression—his eyes stared wildly, his jaw dropped, and he yelled, 'Keep him out.' We rushed to the window and when we returned his head had dropped and his pulse ceased to beat" (*The Sign of Four*). No wonder his son, Thaddeus Sholto, became hypochondriacal about his mitral valve.

The other is a good description of an aortic aneurysm. When Jefferson Hope was arrested he remarked that he might not live for the trial. "It isn't suicide I am thinking of, put your hand on my chest," he said. Watson did so and at once became conscious of an extraordinary throbbing and motion inside. The walls of his chest seemed to quiver as a frail building would when some powerful engine was at work. In the silence of the room he could hear a dull humming and buzzing noise which proceeded from the same source. Watson diagnosed an aortic aneurysm and the diagnosis was confirmed by his death from its rupture that afternoon (*The Study in Scarlet*).

I have dealt more fully with these medical aspects in the *Guy's Hospital Gazette* (Vol 48, p 524, 1934 and Vol 49, p 2 and 27, 1935).

MAURICE CAMPBELL

THE DURATION OF NORMAL HEART SOUNDS

BY

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The gradually increasing importance of phonocardiography creates problems that at times are difficult to solve—among them, that of deciding whether the complexes revealed by a tracing are still within normal limits. Therefore, knowledge of exact normal data is of interest as a basis for the study of clinical tracings.

Many authors studied the normal heart sounds between 1907 and 1937. Their data have been reviewed and can be found in a comprehensive work by Rappaport and Sprague (1942). As, however, those studies were made by means of various techniques, any comparison with our data is impossible and their detailed quotation needless.

The only article that dealt with the same problem and used a similar technique is by Rappaport and Sprague (1942). Our study was made by means of the stethoscopic microphone, therefore, reference will be made only to data obtained by those authors using this microphone.

Rappaport and Sprague studied 33 normal persons between the ages of 19 and 38, and gave the maximal and minimal duration of the heart sounds recorded at the apex (Table I). No average data were given by them.

While these data are extremely useful, they are not sufficient for clinical studies because (a) they

refer to only one age group, (b) they give only the total duration without breaking down the sounds into their various phases, and (c) no average figures are given. For these reasons, an additional, more comprehensive study was considered necessary.

THE MAIN PHASES OF THE CARDIAC SOUNDS

As known, the first and second sounds are actually "noises," consisting of various vibrations having different frequencies. Both the first and the second sounds are caused by four different factors. Four different components were, therefore, described in both the first (Orias and Braun Menendez, 1939) and second sounds (Rappaport and Sprague, 1941 and 1942).

The systematic clinical use of phonocardiography convinced one of us (Luisada) of the extreme variability of the complexes of the heart sounds even in normal subjects. In many of these, separation of the complexes into four components is impossible. On the other hand, the occasional observation of cases where the large vibrations of either the first or the second sound are far more numerous than in the average tracing forces one to know not only the overall duration of the sounds but also the duration of their individual components. For this reason, while we fully recognize the accuracy

TABLE I
DATA OF RAPPAORT AND SPRAGUE

	First sound (sec)	Second sound (sec)	Third sound (sec)	Interval II-III (sec)
Maximum duration	0.165	0.145	0.085	0.240
Minimum duration	0.105	0.085	0.030	0.160

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and the theoretical importance of dividing the sound complexes into many components, we think that a simplified system of study may have practical value. The following description is based on purely practical considerations.

In both the first and second sounds, the main part of the complex consists of large irregular vibrations, caused in the main by valvular events, while the beginning and the end of the sound is formed by slower vibrations. Therefore, division of each sound into three phases is relatively easy (Fig 1).

Tables II and III show the causes of these phases and correlate them with the various components of each sound.

As will be noted, our division into components of the first sound is slightly different from that of Orias and Braun Menendez (1939) for the following reasons:

(a) The muscular factor gives vibrations that may be superimposed on all the others. On the other hand, a slow vibration frequently initiates the first sound in cases of complete A-V block or auricular fibrillation. This is due to the isometric contraction of the ventricles. It is difficult to say whether the heart muscle itself is causing it or whether it is due to initial vibrations of the mitral and tricuspid valves preceding their closure.

(b) The valvular factor gives vibrations that

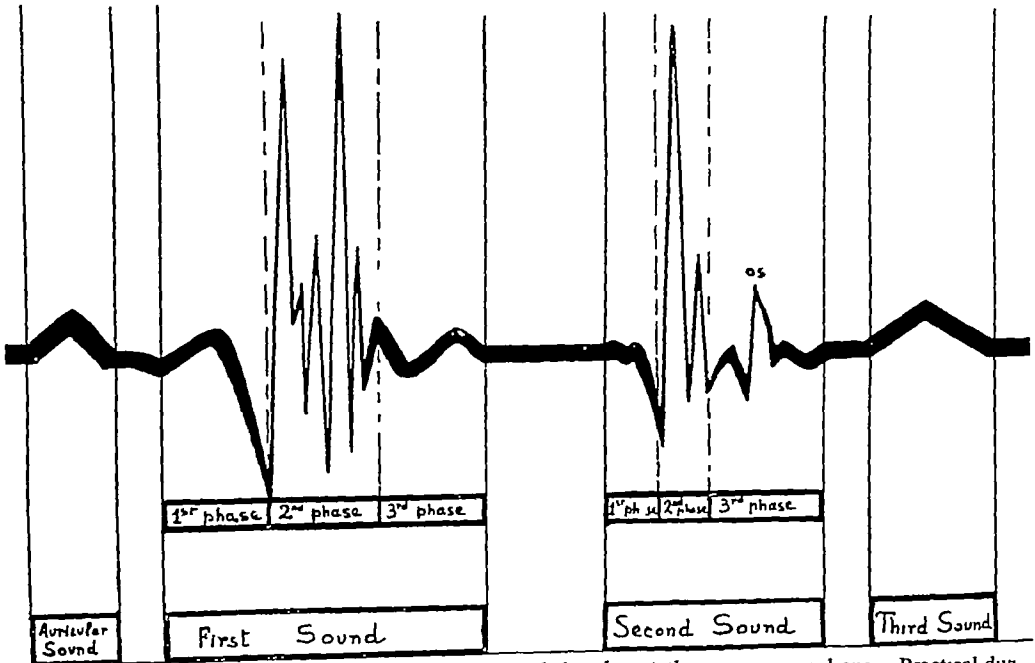


FIG 1 —Diagram of a normal phonocardiogram recorded with a stethoscopic microphone. Practical division of the first and second sounds into three main phases.

TABLE II
CAUSAL AND PRACTICAL DIVISION OF THE FIRST SOUND COMPLEX

Component	Cause	Type of vibration	Phase (new terminology)
1st	Auricular residual vibrations	Coarse	1st phase, or phase of the coarse, initial vibrations
2nd	Vibrations due to the isometric contraction of the ventricles	Small	
3rd	Vibrations due to the closure of the A-V valves	Coarse	2nd phase, or phase of the fine, large vibrations
4th	Vibrations due to the opening of the semilunar valves	Small	
5th	Vibrations due to the ejection of blood and to arterial distention	Fine	3rd phase, or phase of the coarse, final vibrations
		Large	
		Coarse	
		Small	

TABLE III
CAUSAL AND PRACTICAL DIVISION OF THE SECOND SOUND COMPLEX

Component	Cause	Type of vibrations	Phase (new terminology)
1st	Vibrations preceding the closing of the semilunar valves	Coarse Small	1st phase, or phase of the coarse, initial vibrations
2nd	Vibrations caused by the closure of the semilunar valves	Fine Large	
3rd	Arterial vibrations	Fine or coarse Small	3rd phase, or phase of the terminal vibrations
4th	Vibrations due to the opening of the A-V valves	May be fine Usually coarse and small	

often are clearly separated (Fig 2 and 3) and may even cause an audible splitting of the sound. Both A-V valve closure and semilunar valve opening are accompanied by rapid large vibrations. The latter are clearly separated from the following vibrations of vascular origin.

On the contrary, the theoretical division of the second sound into four components, as made by Rappaport and Sprague, is exact and should not be changed. It should be pointed out, however, that the vibration due to the opening of the mitral valve may become audible even in normal subjects and give a high wave on the tracings, as reported by one of us (Luisada, 1943 and 1948) and shown by Fig 4.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Our study was based on the private collection of one of us (Luisada), consisting of over 1500 phonocardiograms. Cases with a clinical diagnosis of heart disease, an abnormal electrocardiogram, or a recorded murmur were excluded. This left 185 cases which, grouped by age, were divided as follows:

- (a) 4 cases of fetal sounds recorded during various stages of pregnancy
- (b) 1 case below 4 years of age
- (c) 2 cases between 4 and 10 years of age
- (d) 7 cases between 11 and 20 years of age
- (e) 56 cases between 21 and 40 years of age
- (f) 38 cases between 41 and 60 years of age
- (g) 17 cases above 60 years of age

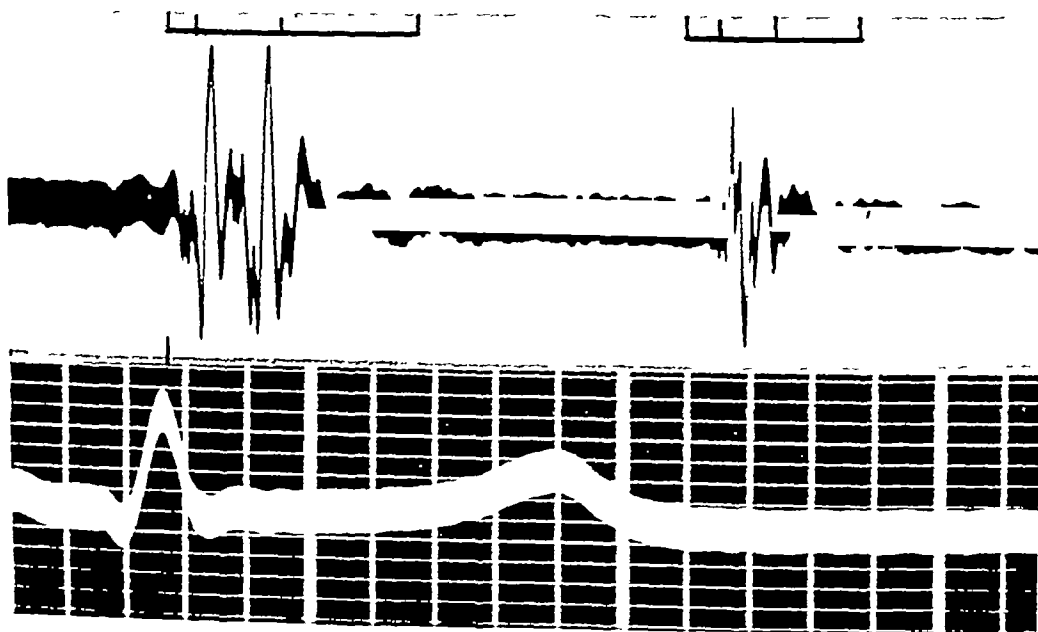


FIG 2—Phonocardiogram of a normal subject, aged 24 years

The first sound presents two higher vibrations in phase 2

On account of the small number below 10 years of age, the average figures were made only for those above that age. In each case, the study was made on phonocardiograms recorded by means of a Stetho-cardiette and a stethoscopic microphone with a large funnel*, only tracings recorded at the apex (181 cases) and at the aortic area (73 cases) were considered (foetal sounds excepted).

The data that were measured were as follows

(1) Duration of the auricular sound from beginning to end

(2) Total duration of the first sound, from the beginning of the coarse initial deflection to the end

of the last coarse vibration of vascular origin†

(3) Partial durations of the three phases of the first sound (coarse initial vibrations, high and fine central vibrations, and coarse final vibrations)

(4) Total duration of the second sound, from the beginning of the coarse, initial vibrations to the end of the coarse final vibrations

(5) Partial duration of the three phases of the second sound (coarse initial vibrations, high and fine central vibrations, and coarse final vibrations including the opening sound of the mitral valve)

(6) Interval between the beginning of the auricular sound and the beginning of the first sound (a-l)

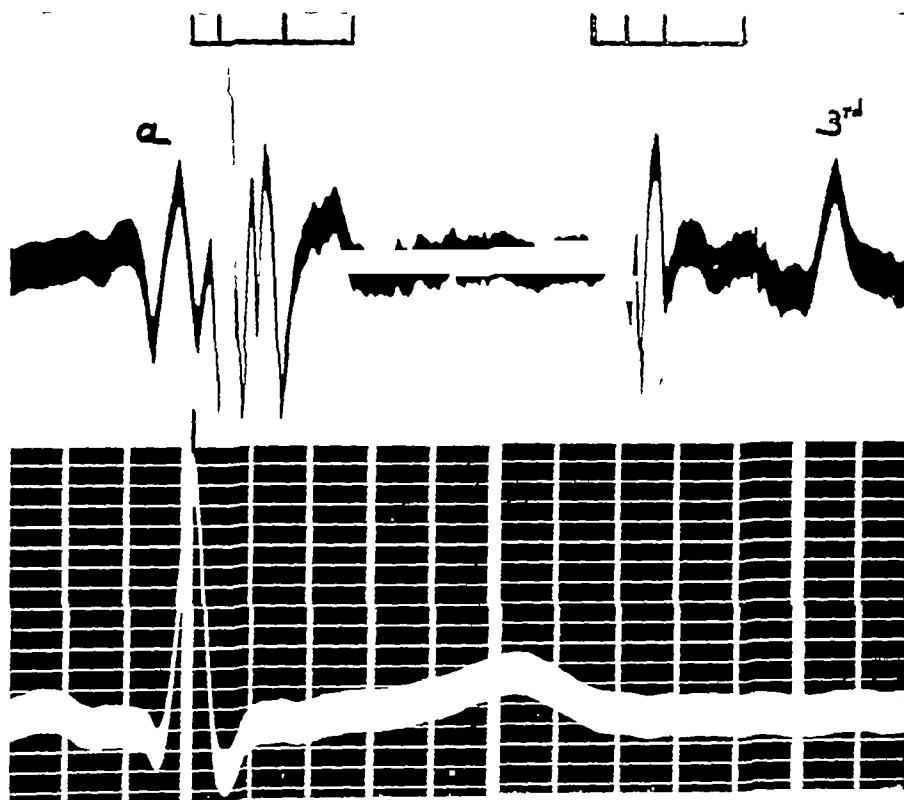


FIG 3—Phonocardiogram of a boy of 15 years. Loud auricular sound very close to the first sound, third sound. In this case, an arbitrary setting of the beginning of the first sound at the peak of R wave of the electrocardiogram would have been necessary as no clear cut division exists between auricular and first sounds.

* In the adults, a funnel having 5 cm. of diameter was used. In children, a smaller funnel having a diameter of 3.7 cm. was preferred.

† In a few cases, it was noted that the auricular sound gave vibrations lasting up to the beginning of the phase of large vibrations of the first sound. In others, no vibration of a coarse type preceded this phase. In order to obtain a clear-cut point in such cases, the peak of the R wave of the electrocardiogram was taken as the initiation of the first sound as an arbitrary and practical reference which may entail a slight error.

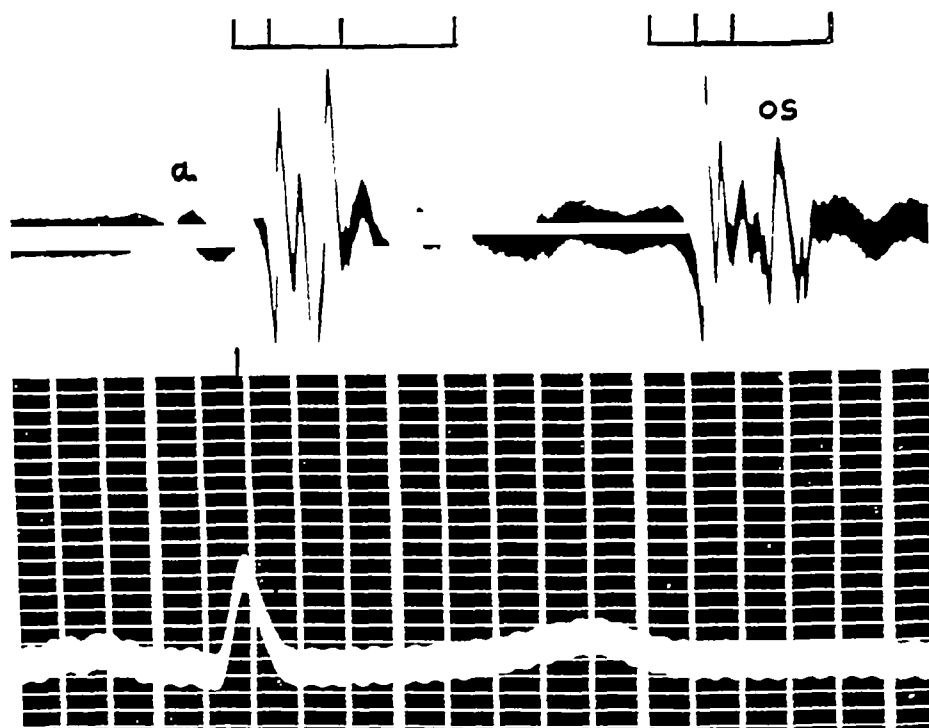


FIG 4—Phonocardiogram of a normal woman of 33 years. Two higher vibrations are present in phase 2 of the first sound. The second sound includes a high vibration (os) at the opening of the mitral valve.

The subject has been followed for eight years since this tracing and repeated phonocardiograms recorded. No heart disease was ever recognized. Subsequent tracings indicated a more conventional aspect of the second sound.

(7) Interval between the peak of the largest oscillation of the second sound and the beginning of the third sound (II-III)

The results of the study are reported in the following tables. Occasional small differences occur between the average figure of the total duration of the first or second sound and the average sum of the three phases of each. This is due to the fact that the first phase was measured only in a percentage of cases (indicated in parenthesis) while in others, with no visible vibration occurring in that phase, no measurement was possible.

A summary of the protocols of our observations is given here. Table IV shows the average duration of the heart sounds and their phases and Table V indicates the extreme variations of these sounds.

The average length of the first sound above the age of 10 was found to be 0.146 sec. at the apex and 0.140 sec. at the aortic area.

The average length of the second sound in the same conditions was found to be 0.097 and 0.104 sec.,

respectively. That of the third sound was found to be 0.059 and 0.042 sec.

The average interval separating the beginning of the auricular sound from that of the first sound was found to be 0.058 sec. for both areas, while that separating the main oscillation of the second sound from the beginning of the third, 0.15 sec. at the apex and 0.17 sec. at the aortic area.*

The extreme variations of the first and second sounds are indicated in Table V. Between the ages of 11 and 20, the first sound varied from 0.12 to 0.16 sec. at the apex and from 0.11 to 0.16 at the aortic area, and the second sound, from 0.08 to 0.18 sec. at both areas.

Between the ages of 41 and 60, the first sound varied from 0.07 to 0.22 sec. at the apex and from 0.09 to 0.22 sec. at the aortic area, and the second sound, from 0.05 to 0.16 and from 0.06 to 0.14 sec., respectively.

* The latter figure was obtained on a small percentage of the cases (9 per cent).

TABLE IV
AVERAGE DURATION OF THE HEART SOUNDS, THEIR PHASES AND THEIR INTERVALS *

Age groups (years)	First Sound (sec)				Second sound (sec)				III sound (sec)	a-I (sec)	II-III (sec)
	Total	1st phase	2nd phase	3rd phase	Total	1st phase	2nd phase	3rd phase			
Fœtal sounds Below 4	0 085 0 070	0 010 —	0 025 0 040	0 055 0 030	0 055 0 060	0 010 —	0 027 0 020	0 020 0 040	— —	— —	— —
4-10	0 120 0 145	— 0 020	0 040 0 070	0 080 0 065	0 065 0 110	— 0 010	0 015 0 055	0 050 0 050	0 050 0 040	0 060 0 060	0 12 0 14
11-20	0 147 0 147	0 016 0 010	0 069 0 064	0 071 0 066	0 097 0 120	0 018 0 020	0 015 0 034	0 056 0 056	0 050 —	0 060 0 055	0 14 —
21-40	0 146 0 145	0 020 0 020	0 063 0 060	0 078 0 071	0 107 0 114	0 020 0 018	0 028 0 043	0 069 0 055	0 061 0 043	0 064 0 072	0 16 0 18
41-60	0 149 0 144	0 020 0 020	0 057 0 064	0 080 0 068	0 097 0 098	0 016 0 013	0 024 0 040	0 068 0 053	0 057 0 040	0 061 0 052	0 18 0 19
Above 60	0 141 0 123	0 024 0 023	0 050 0 063	0 080 0 054	0 087 0 085	0 020 0 010	0 025 0 038	0 053 0 044	— —	0 050 0 060	— —
Overall averages for ages above 10 years	0 146	0 020	0 060	0 077	0 097	0 018	0 023	0 061	0 059	0 058	0 15
	—	(46%)	—	—	—	(46%)	—	—	(50%)	(78%)	(50%)
	0 140	0 020	0 063	0 065	0 104	0 015	0 039	0 052	0 042	0 058	0 17
	—	(55%)	—	—	—	(38%)	—	—	(9%)	(45%)	(9%)

* NOTE The top figures refer to measurements at the apex, the figures below are those from the aortic area

TABLE V
EXTREME VARIATIONS OF THE HEART SOUNDS AND THEIR MAIN PHASES

Ages	First sound				Second sound			
	Maximum (sec)		Minimum (sec)		Maximum (sec)		Minimum (sec)	
	Total duration	2nd Phase	Total duration	2nd phase	Total duration	2nd phase	Total duration	2nd phase
APEX								
11-20	0 16	0 12	0 12	0 04	0 12	0 04	0 08	0 01
21-40	0 22	0 10	0 09	0 02	0 18	0 08	0 04	0 01
41-60	0 22	0 10	0 07	0 03	0 16	0 05	0 05	0 01
AORTIC AREA								
11-20	0 16	0 08	0 11	0 06	0 12	0 04	0 08	0 03
21-40	0 22	0 10	0 10	0 03	0 16	0 10	0 08	0 03
41-60	0 20	0 09	0 09	0 04	0 14	0 06	0 06	0 02

At the apex, the maximum duration of the second phase, that of the large oscillations, was found to be 0.12 sec for the first sound and 0.04 sec for the second sound in the younger age group, 0.10 and 0.08 sec, respectively, for the group between 21 and 40, and 0.10 and 0.05 sec for the older age group. At the aortic area, these same oscillations measured 0.08 and 0.04 sec for the first group, 0.10 sec for both sounds, for the second age group, and 0.09 and 0.06, for the group between 41 and 60.

On the other hand, the *average duration* of this phase was found to be 0.06 sec for the first sound and 0.023 sec for the second, at the apex, and 0.063 and 0.039 sec, respectively, at the aortic area.

DISCUSSION

A comparison of our data with those of Rappaport and Sprague (1941, 1942) shows that our figures were found to be longer for both sounds and also for maxima and minima. This may be explained partly by the larger number of subjects studied and partly by the different way of measuring the sounds which, in our case, is illustrated by Fig. 1.

We believe that breaking the sounds into three phases provides an easier and more rapid method of determining the length of the most important phase, that of large oscillations, which are chiefly connected with valvular events of the heart.*

As a study of the protocols will show, a total duration of the sounds (chiefly of the first sound) that far exceeds the average is found in only a few stray cases. This total duration is increased because

* Whenever an accurate break-down of the sounds into their components is necessary because the phonocardiogram is used as a time reference for other tracings (cardiogram, phlebogram, pneumocardiogram, or fluorocardiogram), the division should follow the lines previously indicated by Orías and Braun Menéndez and by Rappaport and Sprague with the slight modification indicated in Table II for the first sound complex.

the third phase, mainly due to coarse vascular vibrations, is longer than average. This observation increases the importance of separately measuring the three phases of each sound.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The authors have studied the duration of the heart sounds and their intervals in a series of phonocardiograms recorded in 185 normal subjects, making use of a stethoscopic microphone.

The difficulty in the measurement of the normal heart sounds led the authors to propose a new practical division of these in the phonocardiogram for general clinical work. Both the first and the second sounds are divided into three phases—the first phase of small and slow vibrations, the second of high and rapid vibrations, and the third of small and slow vibrations.

A sound should be considered abnormal not only when its total duration is prolonged but also when the duration of the phase of large vibrations is beyond the maximum normal duration of that phase.

For each of the various age groups, total duration and partial durations of the sounds were measured by the authors. Maximum and minimum and average figures are given. The intervals between auricular sound and first sound, and those between the second and third sounds are also studied in the various age groups.

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A LOUD-SPEAKER STETHOSCOPE FOR CLINICAL TEACHING

BY

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An equipment was required that would enable a number of students to listen simultaneously in auscultation of a patient's chest. The method adopted is to pick up the sounds by means of a microphone held on the chest, amplify them electrically, and reproduce them at a loud-speaker. The problem differs from that of phonocardiography in two main respects: first, the subjective effect on the listener must be as similar as possible to auscultation with a stethoscope, which means that certain components of the sounds, too small to affect the phonocardiograph record, must be faithfully reproduced, and at the same time frequencies that are not well picked up by a stethoscope must be correspondingly attenuated by the electrical system, and secondly, oscillation ("howling") is liable to occur due to the microphone picking up the air-borne sound from the loud-speaker.

There is also a fundamental difficulty. The relative sensitivity of the human ear to different frequencies depends on the amplitude of the sound, so that if, by one setting of the amplifier, a student at a certain distance from the loud-speaker hears exactly what he would hear with a particular stethoscope, another at a different distance will not get the same subjective effect. If a high standard of fidelity is demanded, this fact probably limits the method to fairly small groups.

Again, students at a little distance from the patient are at a disadvantage with regard to discrimination, conscious or subconscious, against sounds due to accidental movements of the chest-piece on the skin, and to discrimination against breath sounds when listening to heart sounds and murmurs, because they cannot see small movements. Thus it might be that the best results would be obtained by a compromise that sacrificed fidelity slightly in order to reduce the relative amplitude of such sounds.

Finally there are technical difficulties due to the

very low frequencies of the important sounds, which go below the range of a'l but the best commercial acoustic equipment, and due to the great range of amplitude from the large very low-frequency components of the first heart-sound to the smallest audible murmur.

In the equipment described in this paper, the main difficulties have been overcome, and satisfactory reproduction is believed to have been achieved for at least twenty students at a time. No actual teaching has been done with the equipment at the time of writing. The total cost, apart from time, was about £70.

DISCUSSION OF THE PROBLEM IN THE LIGHT OF PREVIOUS WORK

The equipment is required to pick up from the chest normal and pathological cardiac and respiratory sounds, and to reproduce them by a loud speaker to give as nearly as possible the same effect as auscultation with a stethoscope. Extraneous sounds, such as those due to friction on the skin and air-borne sounds of all kinds, are not required and should be reproduced as little as possible consistent with the main requirement. For the design of the equipment, therefore, information is required on the frequency response of stethoscopes and on the range of frequency covered by the wanted sounds. The equipment should be designed so that the frequency response is the same as that of a stethoscope over this wanted range of frequency, and outside this range the less the response the better.

Cabot and Dodge (1925) studied the frequency distribution of heart and breath sounds, mainly pathological, over the range 30 to 2600 c/s, by a method that is directly applicable to the present problem. They switched different filters in turn into their amplifier and listened for any change in the quality of the sounds as reproduced by it. They

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found that all components of heart sounds and murmurs were below 1000 c/s, and most were below 660 c/s. The lower limit was in some cases 120 c/s, but in others there were components down to the lower limit of their apparatus. Breath sounds were almost entirely within the range 120 to 1000 c/s. At the date of their work the electrical equipment can hardly have been good enough to give a high standard of fidelity. Brooker (1946), who describes the equipment used in making gramophone recordings for Stokes (1946), found that although most of the energy in the sounds was below 1500 c/s, an amplifier that cut off above 2000 c/s did not give perfect reproduction, and he used one which went up to 4500 c/s in spite of the accompanying disadvantage of increased background noise. The lower limit of his amplifier was 30 c/s, but he believed that lower frequencies were present and influenced the total subjective effect.

Mannheimer (1940) has analysed heart sounds and murmurs in normal children and children with congenital heart disease. He used amplifiers incorporating combinations of good filters with measured characteristics, covering a number of frequency bands, the lowest being 0 to 100 c/s and the highest 500 to 1000 c/s. In different cases he found components both of normal sounds and of murmurs in all his frequency bands. His apparatus (which was primarily for phonocardiography) cut off all components above 1000 c/s, and this he found advantageous in reducing the effect of air-borne disturbances.

The absolute measurement of the frequency response of a stethoscope is difficult. In the conditions in which it is used, the frequency response depends not only on the design of the instrument itself, but also on the degree of acoustic mismatching both where the sound is transferred from the patient's body to the chest-piece and where it is transferred from the ear-pieces to the physician's ears, and unless special precautions are taken the degree of mis-matching at one or both places will be different under the conditions of the experiment from that under practical working conditions. It is of course also necessary to know and correct for the frequency response of the source of sound (e.g. a loud-speaker), and of the microphone and other apparatus used for measuring the amplitude transmitted by the stethoscope. No account has been found of a measurement of this kind in which a full technical description of the apparatus has been given, and it seems likely that authors have failed to realize the importance of reproducing exactly the acoustical mis-match which occurs in practice. A technique in which these matters are fully taken account of, is described in a Medical Research Council Special

Report (1947), and was used for measuring the performance of hearing aids. Some such technique could be applied to measurement of the frequency response of a stethoscope, but as far as I know this has not been done.

Rappaport and Sprague (1941) have attempted to measure the frequency response of stethoscopes and give a theoretical response curve for an amplifying stethoscope which should reproduce the effect of "a theoretically average acoustical stethoscope," but it does not seem that their technique was adequate for the reasons just discussed. Their curve falls off steadily from 200 c/s downwards, to -20db at 30 c/s.

Comparison of the effects of different stethoscope chest-pieces is not so difficult. By putting a source of sound in the heart of a cadaver and applying the different chest-pieces to the chest, Johnstone and Kline (1940) closely simulated the conditions of clinical use as far as the acoustical mis-match at that end was concerned. They compared different stethoscopes over the range 20 to 800 c/s, and from their curves it appears that the main effect of a diaphragm, compared with an open bell, is to attenuate the lower frequencies and so increase the relative high-frequency response.

Many whole loud-speaker equipments for teaching are mentioned in papers from 1920 onwards, but usually without precise information about frequency response. Gamble and Replogle (1924) describe the apparatus used by Cabot (1923), and Gamble (1924) describes improvements to the apparatus and the results of experience after a few months' use. Their trials with loud-speaker reproduction were unsatisfactory, and they used a telephone type of output device to which an ordinary stethoscope was applied. They found that a filter cutting off sounds above 660 c/s gave the best results for routine use, and that additional filters were useful for accentuating particular sounds and murmurs, in particular one passing frequencies below 140 c/s and one passing frequencies above 130 c/s. Rappaport and Sprague (1941) discuss the reasons for poor results with loud-speaker equipments, and emphasize the importance of adequate loud-speaker power-handling capacity and freedom from resonances, as well as correct frequency response of the whole equipment. The advantages of loud-speaker reproduction for teaching purposes are discussed by Henriques (1937).

As regards choice of microphone, since the introduction of the piezo-electric crystal microphone this has been unanimously accepted as the best type for the purpose (e.g. by Sacks and Marquis (1935) and Rentschler (1936), etc.). My own experiments with a few other types which happened to be available agree with this.

CHARACTERISTICS REQUIRED FOR THE EQUIPMENT

The simplest method of getting a controlled frequency response is to use a microphone and a loud-speaker that both have a response approximately independent of frequency over the range concerned, and to incorporate suitable filters in the amplifier. The range to be covered is from about 30 c/s up to at least 1000 c/s, and probably up to 4000 c/s.

A piezo-electric crystal microphone covers the frequency range satisfactorily, but because of its high impedance it is necessary to keep the capacity of the lead to the first stage of the amplifier low (in the region of 0.0001 microfarad) in order to maintain the response at the upper end of the frequency range. The amplifier input impedance must be high, suitable input circuits are given in *Radio Designer's Handbook*, chapter XI. It is desirable to separate the amplifier from the microphone so that the latter can be mounted in a small light unit, to be placed directly on the chest. High sensitivity to vibrations from the chest-wall, and low sensitivity to air-borne sound and to friction on the case, are required.

The loud-speaker must have a response maintained to the lowest audible frequencies, and portability is an advantage. It must be free from resonances in the lower audio-frequency range, and must also have a power-handling capacity much greater than the mean power to be broadcast, because the very large amplitude low-frequency components in the heart-sounds, which are almost inaudible themselves because of their low frequency, cause chattering or booming in a small loud-speaker.

The amplifier must have a response maintained up to about 4000 c/s, and down to the lowest audible frequencies, though some falling off below 200 c/s is probably required to simulate a stethoscope frequency response. Adjustable filters are required to reduce the low-frequency response and simulate a diaphragm stethoscope, and to reduce the high-frequency response and discriminate against extraneous sounds, which tend to have higher frequencies than the wanted sounds. Further adjustment of the frequency response is desirable so that an attempt may

be made to emphasize a particular sound or murmur. The filter and volume controls must be early enough in the amplifier circuit to avoid "limiting" at any stage, but as late as possible, consistent with this, to give quietness in operation. These controls should be within reach of the physician who holds the chest piece. The distortion-free output of the amplifier need not be as great as the power-handling capacity of the loud-speaker, because the largest amplitudes are at frequencies that are very little heard as sound and do not need to be faithfully reproduced, indeed, a certain degree of relative reduction of the largest amplitudes is probably desirable.

Finally, simplicity of operation is important in an equipment to be used for teaching.

DESCRIPTION OF THE APPARATUS

Apparatus has been assembled that fulfils very nearly the requirements set out in the previous section. The block diagram (Fig. 1) indicates the arrangement of the different units. A small microphone is used like a stethoscope chest-piece, and its output is carried by 6 feet of rubber-protected screened wire to the pre-amplifier. This is housed in a metal box $6 \times 6 \times 2\frac{1}{4}$ inches, which also contains the volume control and the tone-control filters. This box lies on the bed or a locker, and the three controls, treble, bass, and volume, are operated by rotating knobs. Thus all the control can be done by the physician who handles the microphone. The output from the pre-amplifier and the power supplies to it are carried by a multi-core cable 11 feet long, connecting it with a larger box $17 \times 10 \times 9$ inches, which contains the main amplifier and all the power supply. (The whole apparatus is supplied from A.C. mains.) The output is led to the loud-speaker by 20 feet of twin flex, with an optional extension of another 35 feet. The loud-speaker cabinet is of wood, and measures $31 \times 18 \times 18$ inches.

Microphone The microphone at present in use consists of a small piezo-electric crystal unit mounted at the apex of a hollow cone turned out of a cylin-

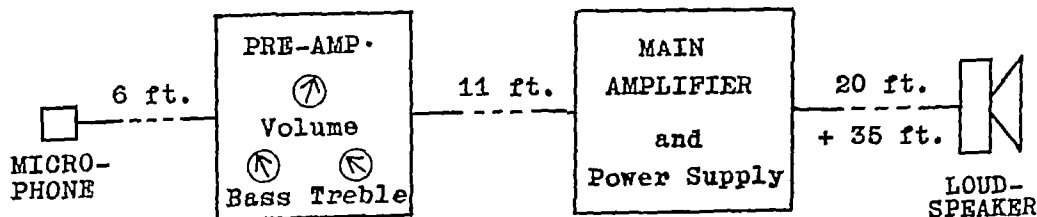


FIG. 1—Block diagram of the complete loud speaker stethoscope

drical block of brass This is chromium-plated, and is held in the hand in direct contact with the chest The diameter of the orifice is 1 inch, the total weight is 5 oz Noises due to friction are no worse than with an ordinary stethoscope Provided the microphone is in contact with the skin all round its rim, there is little tendency to "howl," and in most cases "howling" is not the factor that limits the maximum useful amplification The frequency response of this type of microphone (without moving parts other than the crystal itself) can be made practically uniform, but here it is being used with a lower amplifier input impedance than is recommended, which probably reduces the response at the lower frequencies

It is intended to try other types of crystal microphone, as further improvement may still be possible

Amplifier A high-quality audio-frequency amplifier* was modified to suit the special requirements It consists of two triode stages as pre-amplifier giving a voltage gain $\times 850$, followed by a filter circuit with treble and bass controls and middle-frequency attenuation -10 (20db), a potentiometer volume control, an amplifier and phase-splitter stage, and a push-pull power output stage The amplifier gives an output of 12 watts for an input to the first stage of 20 millivolts r m s The input impedance (first grid leak) is 1.5 megohm

* The amplifier "QA12/P," supplied by The Acoustical Manufacturing Co Ltd, Huntingdon

The principal modification required was in the filter circuit, which is shown in its final form in Fig 2 It is a resistance-capacity network with separate high-frequency and low-frequency controls, which, in the modified circuit, are not entirely independent in their effects The frequency response curves for the middle and extreme settings of the two controls are shown in Fig 3 and 4

The filter controls and the volume control are silent in operation No trouble was encountered from valve noise or microphony In the cable connecting the pre-amplifier to the main amplifier there was considerable pick-up of hum from H T and L T supplies, which was overcome by additional smoothing in the case of the former, but for the L T a separate transformer was necessary, as spikes at 200 c/s recurrence were generated in the main transformer and were picked up by the signal lead from the heater leads With these alterations, the hum from the equipment itself is barely audible, and the measured level in an electrical laboratory was 80 mv r m s across the 15-ohm output, part of this being due to pick-up from other sources

Loud-speaker The loud-speaker is a 15-ohm, 15-watt, 12 inch unit in a special cabinet mounting* This type of mounting is probably the best to combine robustness and portability with a good low-

* "Labyrinth Loud-speaker, Type SL 15," supplied by The Acoustical Manufacturing Co Ltd, Huntingdon

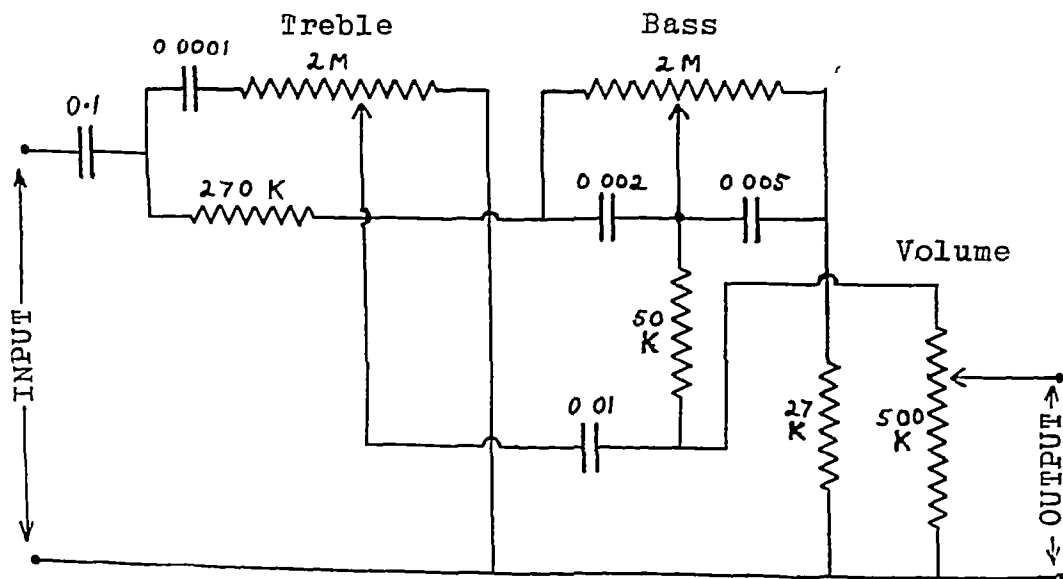


Fig 2—Full diagram of the filter circuit showing treble, bass, and volume controls Resistances in thousands of ohms (K) and megohms (M) Capacities in fractions of a microfarad.
 Input direct from anode of second triode amplifier stage, anode load 100 K
 Output direct to grid of subsequent stage

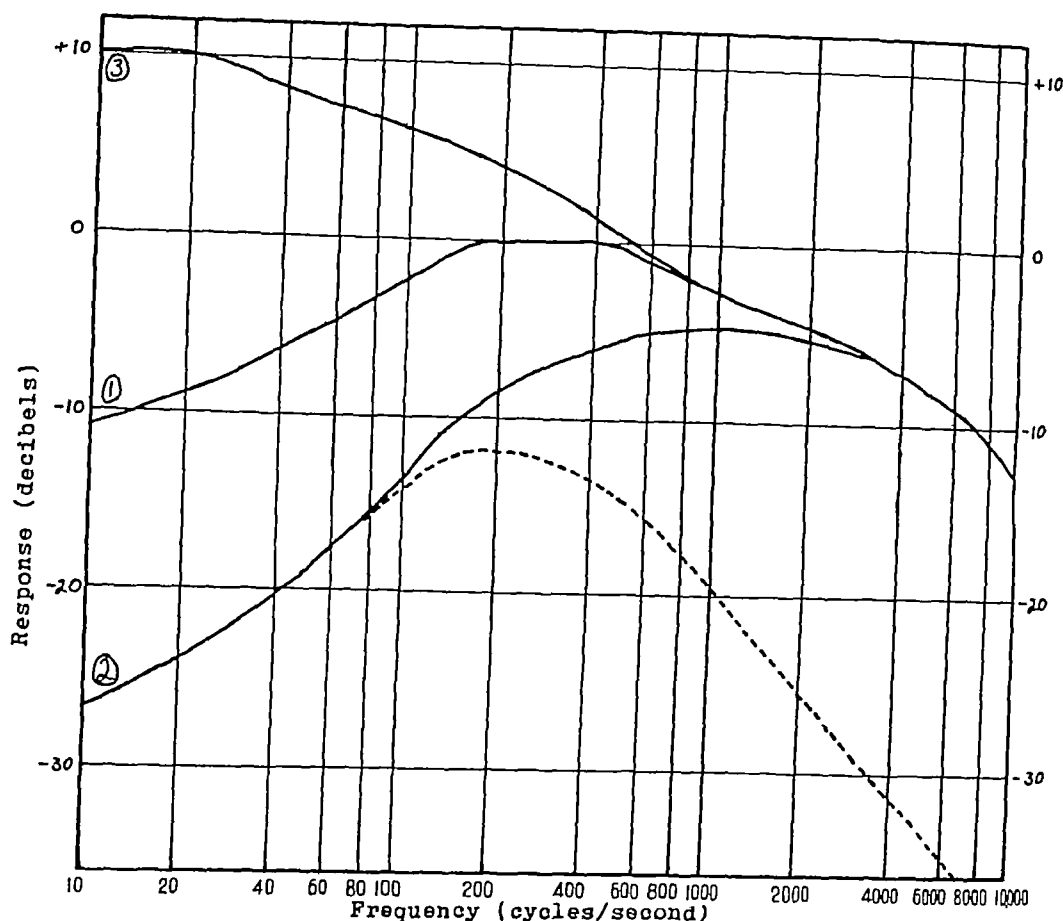


FIG 3—Frequency response curves of amplifier to show the effect of the bass control

Full curves treble control central

(1) Bass control also central

(2) Bass control set at minimum

(3) Bass control set at maximum

Broken curve both controls set at minimum

frequency response The published performance curve indicates a response that is practically independent of frequency down to 35 c/s, with no significant resonances

There is a slight tendency to boom at the first heart-sound, and this is in most cases the factor that limits the maximum volume consistent with good reproduction

Connection to the loud-speaker is made by means of 20 feet of twin flex, with a jack which is plugged into the main amplifier box. An extension of 35 feet of twin flex is available, with a jack socket at one end and a plug at the other. Each socket is arranged to leave a 15-ohm load across the output

when the corresponding plug is removed, so that there is no danger of leaving the output transformer unloaded

RESULTS

The equipment gives a very close approach to the effect of auscultation with a stethoscope, in a quiet room large enough for twenty people. For auscultation over the præcordium the apparent loudness cannot usefully be increased much above that heard with a stethoscope because distortion of the sounds begins to occur. A variety of pathological murmurs have been listened to, and these as well as the normal sounds are satisfactorily heard. On the whole, very

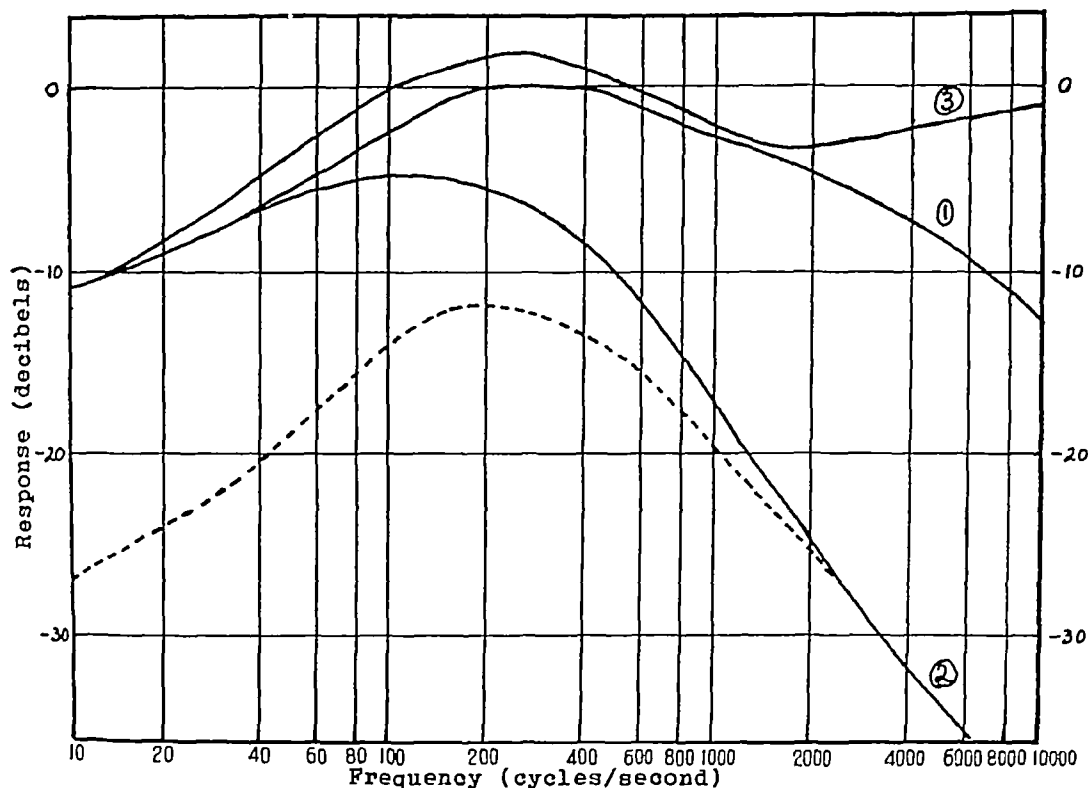


FIG 4—Frequency-response curves of amplifier to show the effect of the treble control

Full curves bass control central

(1) Treble control also central

(2) Treble control set at minimum

(3) Treble control set at maximum

Broken curve both controls set at minimum

faint murmurs are not more easily picked up with the loud-speaker than with a stethoscope, but simultaneous auscultation will allow each student to listen for a much longer time than he would otherwise be able to do, and so increase his chances of picking up a difficult murmur

For auscultation of breath sounds the volume can be considerably increased without distortion, and both normal and pathological sounds are picked up much more easily than with a stethoscope. The volume can then of course be reduced to simulate a stethoscope more exactly

SUMMARY

The problems of electrical amplification of heart sounds and of group auscultation are discussed both theoretically and with reference to previous work

A portable equipment is described which is believed to be suitable for teaching groups of at least twenty students. This consists of a crystal microphone, an electrical amplifier, and a loud-speaker, which have been arranged to give an effect that simulates very closely auscultation with a stethoscope

The amplification, and the high- and low-frequency response of the amplifier, can be easily and silently controlled during auscultation. The relevant frequency response curves are given

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THE EFFECT OF ADENOSINE TRIPHOSPHATE ON THE ELECTROCARDIOGRAM OF MAN AND ANIMALS

BY

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The increasing importance of adenosine triphosphate (*ATP*) in the field of biochemistry demands a close study of its pharmacological properties. Earlier work on the lower nucleotides and nucleosides derived from *ATP* showed that these compounds have important effects on the cardiovascular system. Now that large amounts of the higher derivatives, such as *ATP*, have become available, it has been shown that the action of these substances is not confined to the cardiovascular system but affects all the organs of the body (Green and Stoner, 1949). Although the effect of these compounds on the heart has been studied in some detail by Drury and his school (1936), their electrocardiographic observations were almost entirely confined to the lower members of the series. In the present paper we propose to describe the effects of *ATP* on the electrocardiogram of man and animals. The cardiographic method is the only satisfactory one available for the study of changes in cardiac rhythm in man. We have also applied this method to the study of the cardiac effects of *ATP* in animals in order to determine the effects of doses higher than those that would have been justifiable in man and also to analyse these actions by procedures impracticable clinically. The observations in animals will be reported first, then those in the human subjects, and finally the conclusions arrived at from the combined study.

I ANIMAL EXPERIMENTS

Early work on the effect of adenosine and its derivatives on the electrocardiogram has been well reviewed by Drury (1936). It has been shown that these substances affect the conducting system, causing sinus slowing and A-V block. In most animals the main effect is upon the S-A node but in the guinea pig the A-V node seems more sensitive

to their action. It will be seen that the action of *ATP* is on the whole similar to that of the lower compounds. The further actions of *ATP* on the cardiovascular system have been described by us elsewhere (Green and Stoner, 1949).

Methods Experiments were performed on 10 cats and 11 guinea pigs under pentobarbitone sodium (nembutal) anaesthesia. The electrocardiogram was recorded with a Sanborn Viso-cardiette. In the cat the pressure in the carotid artery was determined with a mercury manometer and respiration recorded by a tambour attached to a tracheal cannula. Artificial respiration was used in the majority of the guinea pig experiments. All injections were given into the external jugular vein and washed in with 1.5 ml 0.9 per cent sodium chloride from a burette. The time of the injection was 1 sec. Both the sodium and magnesium salts of *ATP* were used in the animal experiments, the solutions being prepared from *BaATP* (Boots) as described elsewhere (Green and Stoner, 1949). In the observations on man the magnesium salt was used. The purity of the *ATP* was checked by chemical analysis and found to be not less than 98 per cent. The adenosine used was obtained from British Drug Houses Ltd.

RESULTS

Guinea Pig The effect of *ATP* on the conducting system of the guinea pig heart was followed in leads I and II. Two dosage levels were used—0.5 mg and 1.0 mg *MgATP* per kg body weight. With the smaller dose the effect on the heart commenced almost immediately after the injection and lasted about 21 seconds, reaching a maximum in 6 to 9 seconds. The first effects were on the sinus rate and the P-R interval. The sinus rate was reduced by about 18 per cent and the P-R interval

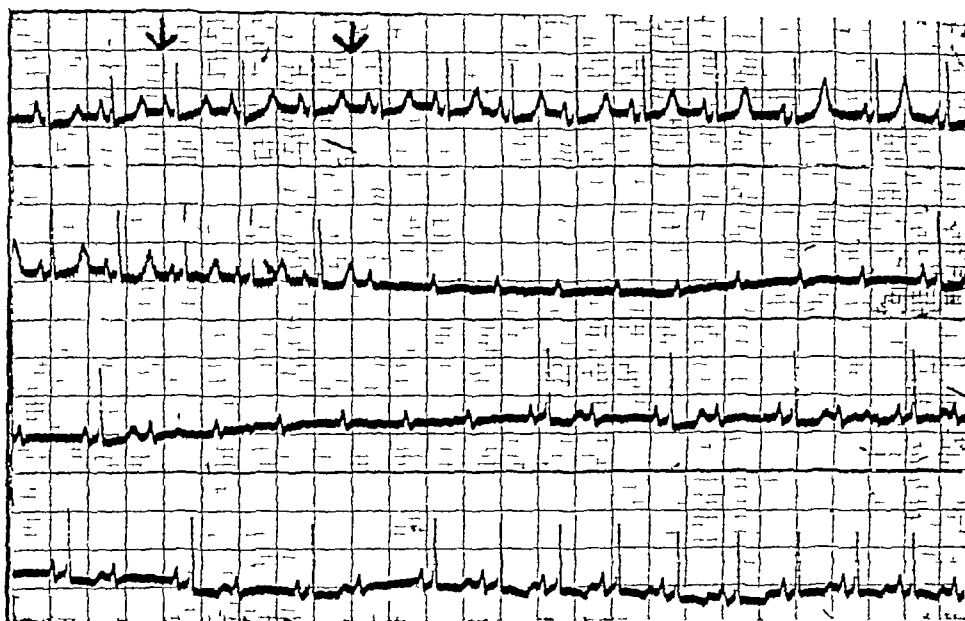


FIG 1—To be read from left to right and from above downwards. The effect of 0.5 mg *MgATP* per kg body wt, given intravenously, on the electrocardiogram (lead II) of the guinea pig under pentobarbitone (nembutal) anaesthesia. The beginning and end of the injection indicated with arrows. Shows sinus slowing followed by ventricular arrest and 2:1 A-V block.

1 mV=1.6 cm

1 sec = 2.5 cm

was increased from an average control value of 0.06 to between 0.09 and 0.12 second. At the height of the effect *ATP* exerted a much greater action on the A-V node than on the S-A node and the ventricular beat was completely suppressed for periods of up to 3 seconds. Ventricular beating then returned with 2:1 heart block progressing to normal rhythm (Fig 1).

Despite these marked changes in rhythm the form of the complexes showed little change. The only constant alterations seen were some depression of the P-Q interval giving a spiky appearance to the P waves and increased amplitude of the T waves.

After the larger dose of *ATP* the effect attained a maximum at about the same time after the injection and persisted for about 30 seconds. The sequence of events was as before but both the sinus slowing and prolongation of the P-R interval were more marked. The sinus rate was reduced by a maximum of about 36 per cent and the P-R interval was prolonged until at the height of the effect the ventricular beat was suppressed for 6 to 9 seconds. On occasions this was accompanied by atrial asystole. Recovery occurred as before with varying grades of heart block.

Changes in the configuration of the complexes were commoner after the larger dose of *ATP*. Increased amplitude of the T wave was evident and low voltage QRS complexes and extrasystoles were also seen. These extrasystoles arose from a focus close to, but below, the A-V node. Occasional abnormalities which were seen, usually during the recovery period, were inversion of the P wave, auricular fibrillation, nodal rhythm, and displacement of the S-T segment.

When adenosine was given in equimolecular amounts it had the same effect on cardiac rhythm as *ATP*. Section of the vagi in the neck did not alter the response to *ATP* or adenosine.

Cat—The effect of *ATP* on the electrocardiogram (lead II) of the cat was studied after the intravenous injection of 1.0 mg and 2.0 mg *MgATP* (0.3–0.5 and 0.7–1.0 mg per kg body weight). The effects observed differed somewhat from those in the guinea-pig and more closely resembled those to be described in man.

The main effects after the smaller dose of *ATP* were sinus bradycardia and lengthening of the P-R interval. The degree of sinus slowing varied but at the height of the effect, about 10 seconds after

injection, the sinus rate was usually decreased by about 50 per cent. The effect persisted for a further 10 to 20 seconds by which time the rate had returned to normal. The P-R interval increased from 0.06 to 0.09 second at the height of the effect. The P-Q interval was depressed and changes constantly occurred in the T wave. In the majority of experiments the T wave was increased in amplitude during the first 10 seconds after the injection. Sometimes this change persisted for as long as 42 seconds and was accompanied by alterations in the level of the S-T segment (Fig. 2). In other experiments, during the later stages of the ATP action, the T waves were depressed and then inverted.

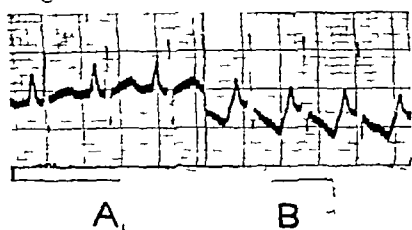


FIG. 2—Segments of the electrocardiogram (lead II) record immediately before (A), and 15 sec after (B), the intravenous injection of 2.0 mg *MgATP* into a cat (3.0 kg body wt.) under pentobarbitone (nembutal) anaesthesia, showing the depression of the S-T segment.

1 mV = 1.6 cm 1 sec = 2.5 cm

Similar but more marked changes occurred after the larger dose (Fig. 3). Here the P-R interval was increased from an average control value of 0.07 to 0.11 second. Sinus bradycardia, which was still the main effect, was more pronounced sometimes leading to complete asystole, in one experiment there was complete asystole for 6 seconds with ventricular asystole for 11 seconds. The maximum effect occurred about 10 seconds after the injection and was characteristically heralded by a run of about four extrasystoles (Fig. 4) arising from a focus close to, but below, the A-V node. The T wave changes were of the same type as before but were more evident after these larger doses.

Previous work has shown that the vagus is concerned in the cardiovascular response to ATP in the cat (Bielchowsky, Green, and Stoner, 1946). In this animal section of the vagi in the neck or atropinization diminished the effect of ATP on both the blood pressure and the heart, but the blood pressure changes were much less affected than one would have expected from the changes in the cardiac response (Fig. 5). For instance, in one experiment

where the depressor response to 2.0 mg *MgATP* was 35 mm Hg before vagal section, the P-R interval was prolonged from 0.06 to 0.10 second, and the sinus rate slowed from 180 to 60 beats a minute with complete A-V dissociation for 3 seconds. After vagal section the same dose only prolonged the P-R interval very slightly, from 0.06 to 0.08 second, and slowed the sinus rate only from 160 to 140 beats a minute without dissociation, nevertheless the blood pressure fell by as much as 22 mm Hg. Although inactivation of the vagi greatly reduced the effect of ATP on cardiac rhythm it did not alter its action on the configuration of the complexes nor prevent the appearance of extrasystoles.

Prostigmine had the opposite effect to vagal section and greatly potentiated the action of ATP on cardiac rhythm in the cat (Fig. 6). In a normal cat 2.0 mg *MgATP*, injected intravenously, lengthened the P-R interval from 0.08 to 0.12 second, and produced complete asystole for 3 seconds. In the same cat, after intravenous injection of 0.125 mg prostigmine, the same dose of *MgATP* lengthened the P-R interval from 0.11 to 0.14 second and produced complete asystole for 18 seconds followed by a slow return to normal beating. At the same time the depressor response was increased. This effect of prostigmine could be prevented by vagal section.

In the cat the rate changes produced by ATP were not reproduced by equimolecular amounts of adenosine until after section of the vagi when the effects were similar.

Effect of Magnesium The influence of intravenous magnesium sulphate on the response to ATP was tested in both guinea pig and the cat in view of previous work on the effect of this ion on nucleotide action (Green and Stoner, 1944; Bielchowsky, Green, and Stoner, 1946). The alteration in the response after Mg was more easily interpreted in the guinea pig since the vagus is not implicated in that animal. As shown in Table I, the effect of intravenous magnesium sulphate was to increase the effect of ATP on the cardiac rhythm. Mg^{++} had a similar influence on the action of ATP on the cardiac rhythm of the cat but in that animal the effect was complicated by the anaesthetic action of Mg^{++} on the vagus. Small doses of Mg^{++} , however, increased the effect of ATP on the P-R interval and the duration of the effect. The prolongation of the action of ATP on cardiac rhythm was not the only effect of Mg^{++} on the ATP response, since it also prevented the appearance of extrasystoles.

Effect of Antimalarial Drugs Raventos (1948) has recently postulated that there is an antagonism between adenosine and the antimalarial group of

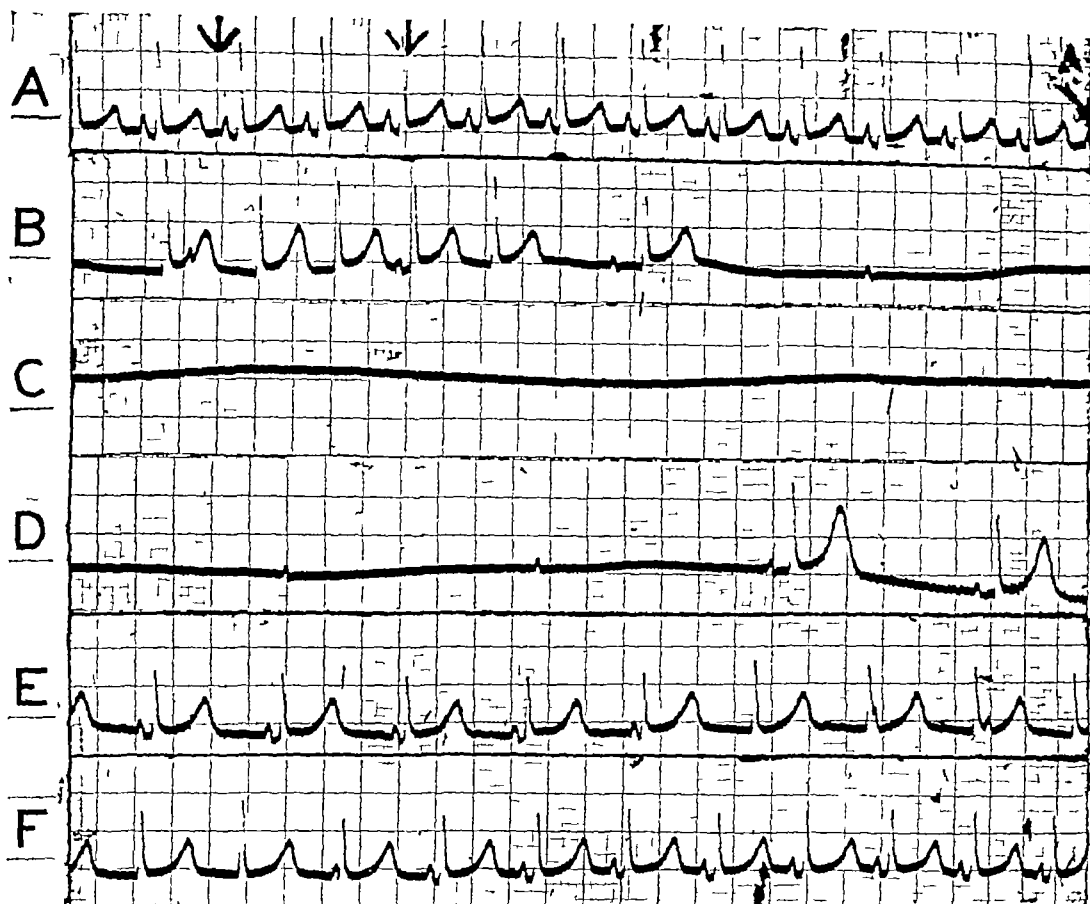


FIG 3—To be read from left to right and from above downwards. The effect of 2.0 mg *MgATP* given intravenously on the electrocardiogram (lead II) of the cat (2.9 kg body wt) under pentobarbitone anaesthesia. The beginning and end of the injection is indicated with arrows. Shows sinus slowing, ventricular asystole and complete asystole with nodal rhythm during the recovery period.

(A) 0–5 sec

(B) 11–16 sec

(C) 16–22 sec

(D) 22–27 sec

(E) 45–50 sec

(F) 55–60 sec

1 mV = 1.6 cm

1 sec = 2.5 cm

drugs since he found that the cardiac effects of adenosine were less after the previous administration of quinine, mepacrine, pamaquin, and paludrine. In the guinea pig heart lung preparation he found that paludrine, added directly to the circulating blood, did not antagonize the action of adenosine but that the blood of guinea pigs treated with paludrine did have this effect.

In part we have been able to confirm these findings. In the cat, the intravenous or intramuscular injection of quinine sulphate (25 mg per kg body weight) does decrease the effect of *ATP* on the heart and

blood pressure. In the guinea pig also, quinine sulphate (15 mg per kg body weight) decreases the effects of adenosine and *ATP* on the heart. In our hands paludrine hydrochloride has behaved differently and when doses in the therapeutic range have been given intravenously over a period of half an hour no change was observed in the electrocardiographic response to *ATP* in the cat or guinea pig. It was only when the dose was raised to the limits of tolerance (60 mg per kg body weight) that any alteration in the response was observed and then the changes were only slight and equivocal.

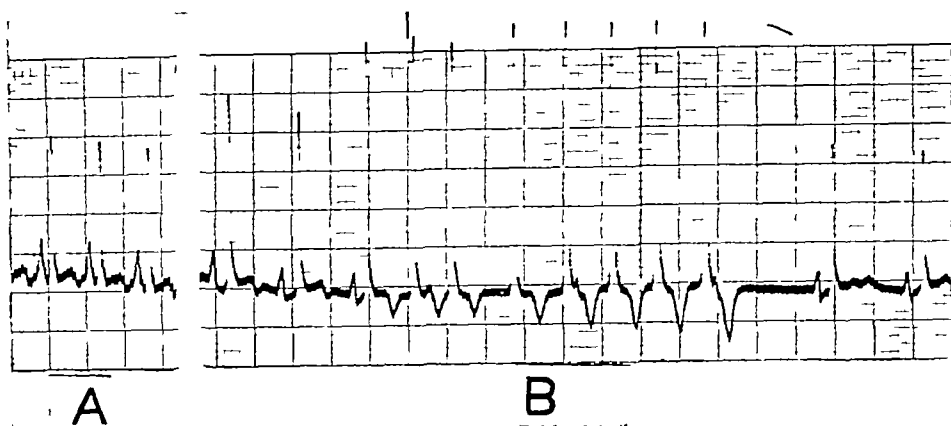


FIG 4—Segments of the electrocardiogram (lead II) record immediately before (A), and 5 sec after (B), the intravenous injection of 2.0 mg *MgATP* into a cat (2.1 kg body wt) under pentobarbitone (nembutal) anaesthesia. Shows the characteristic run of nodal extrasystoles preceding the full action of the *MgATP*.

1 mV = 1 cm

1 sec = 2.5 cm

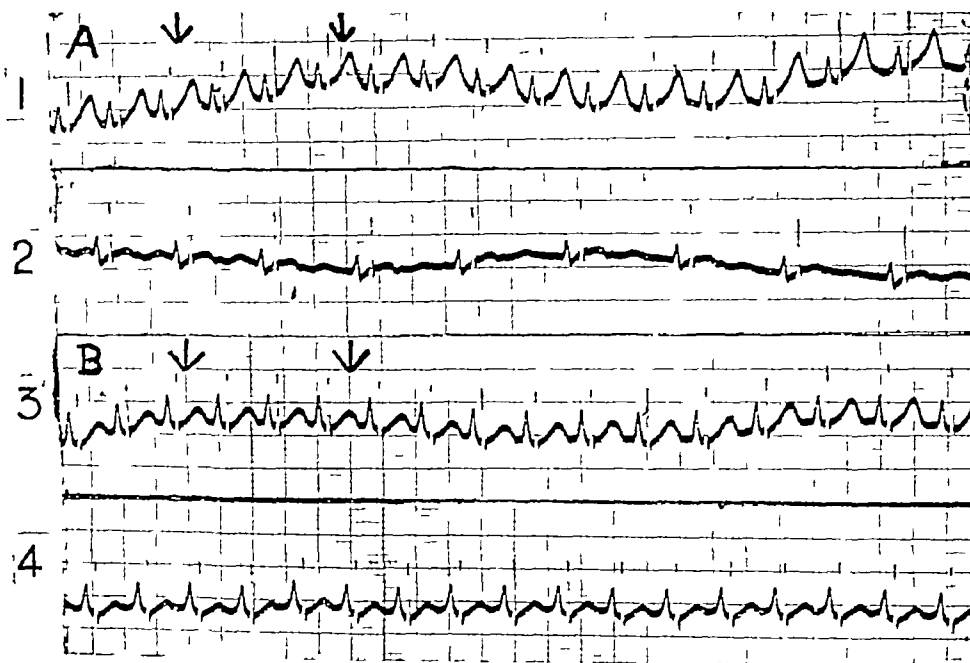


FIG 5—To be read from left to right and from above downwards. The effect of 2.0 mg *MgATP* given intravenously on the electrocardiogram (lead II) of a cat (2.7 kg body wt) under pentobarbitone (nembutal) anaesthesia, (A) before and (B) after the intravenous injection of 0.75 mg atropine sulphate per kg body wt. The beginning and end of the injection of *MgATP* indicated with arrows.

(1) 0-5 sec

(2) 11-16 sec

(3) 0-5 sec

(4) 11-16 sec

Shows the decrease in the degree of sinus slowing produced by *MgATP* after paralysis of the vagus.

1 mV = 1.6 cm

1 sec = 2.5 cm

TABLE I

THE EFFECT OF INTRAVENOUS MAGNESIUM SULPHATE ON THE CARDIAC RESPONSE TO *ATP* IN THE GUINEA PIG

Dose No	Duration of effect (sec)	P-R interval (sec)		Sinus rate Beats per minute		Ventricular rate Beats per minute	
		Before Injection	After Injection	Before Injection	After Injection	Before Injection	After Injection
1	18	0.06	0.09	220	180	220	80
2	18	0.06	0.09	200	180	200	100
3	31	0.11	0.16	120	60	120	20
4	36	0.10	0.18	120	80	120	0

The table shows the effect of successive doses of *MgATP* (0.5 mg per kg body weight) on the P-R interval, and sinus and ventricular rates, before and after intravenous doses of magnesium sulphate.

Between doses No. 2 and 3, 3.0 ml MgSO_4 0.154 M given i.v. and between doses No. 3 and 4, 2.0 ml MgSO_4 0.154 M i.v.

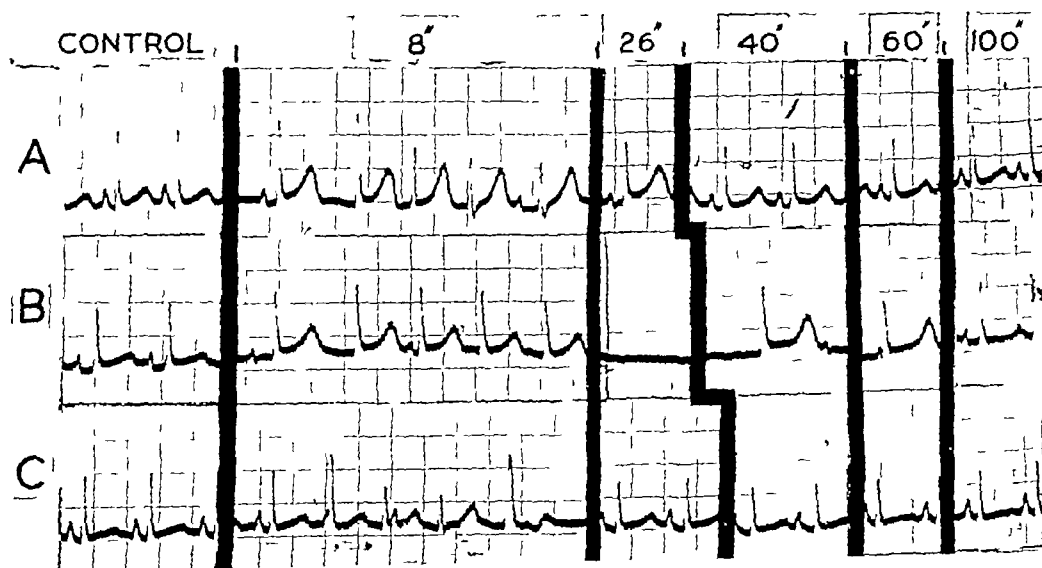


FIG. 6—Segment of the electrocardiogram (lead II) record immediately before (control) and at stated intervals after the intravenous injection of 2.0 mg *MgATP* into the same cat (2.7 kg body wt.) in nembutal anaesthesia under varying conditions.

- (A) Effect of *MgATP* alone
 (B) After intravenous injection of 0.125 mg prostigmine
 (C) As for (B) except that both vagi have been divided

Shows the great increase in the effect of *ATP* after prostigmine administration, which is prevented by division of the vagi.

1 mV = 1.6 cm

1 sec = 2.5 cm

II. OBSERVATIONS ON HUMAN SUBJECTS

The effect of adenylic compounds on the human heart has been comparatively little studied. Honey, Ritchie, and Thomson (1930) showed that adenosine could produce heart block in healthy men and

von den Velden (1932) that adenylic acid would give bradycardia. Richards (1934a) studied the effects of both adenylic acids and adenosine on the blood pressure and electrocardiogram. He concluded that the blood pressure is unaffected but that in some individuals heart block can be produced by

either compound Stoner and Green (1945) using the sodium and magnesium salts of *ATP* produced a rise of pulse rate with small doses and a rise followed by a large fall with large doses. Electrocardiograms were not taken but heart block was suspected in one case. The systolic blood pressure was raised during the period of tachycardia and fell slightly during the time when the pulse was slowing. Arteriolar dilatation occurred with a consequent rise of skin temperature.

ATP in the Treatment of Rheumatoid Arthritis Lövgren (1945) has claimed that *ATP* has a beneficial effect on cases of rheumatoid arthritis. "Adynol," a crude preparation containing 50 to 60 per cent *ATP*, was given by intravenous injection in doses of 30 to 45 mg or by intramuscular injection in doses of 7.5 to 30 mg. We decided to treat a series of cases with a purer preparation of *ATP* and at the same time to study the effect of this substance on the cardiovascular system.

The results of treatment of rheumatoid arthritis were most disappointing. Courses of daily injections of *MgATP* in doses of 15 to 30 mg were given for periods up to three months to 15 patients. Several cases improved subjectively but we could not convince ourselves that there was any change in the degree of disability that would not have been obtained by simple rest in bed and physiotherapy. There was no significant alteration in the erythrocyte sedimentation rate.

Since, as will be shown, *MgATP* has a profound effect on the conducting system of the heart and since it was desired to give to each patient the maximum tolerated dose, very frequent electrocardiographic observations were made on each case. These will now be reported.

Plan of Investigation Seven patients (6 male and 1 female), all with normal hearts, were chosen from the 15 treated for arthritis and were observed specifically for electrocardiographic changes immediately after injection. The patient rested comfortably on a couch, and control blood pressure readings and cardiograms were taken. *MgATP* was injected intravenously, taking 6 to 12 seconds over the injection. Blood pressure readings were taken at 15-second intervals, until the figures returned to pre-injection levels. Cardiograms were taken at the same time as the injection and continued for 1 minute and then for 10 seconds at half-minute intervals for a further minute. Small doses of 5 mg were used initially on each patient and gradually increased by 5 mg at each injection up to the maximum tolerated dose which varied from 15 to 40 mg (0.21–0.57 mg per kg body weight). In all, 100 tracings were obtained in this manner from the 7 patients selected.

EFFECTS OF INJECTION

(1) *Subjective* These were remarkably constant with doses above 10 mg. Ten to fifteen seconds after starting the injection, the subject noted a sharp taste in the mouth, which was followed by hyperpnea, cough, and obvious flushing of the face with a brief sensation of faintness and throbbing in the head. All these effects had disappeared by the end of the first minute and were much less marked if the injection was made slowly.

(2) *Blood pressure* Thirty observations were made on four cases with doses above 10 mg. A fall of blood pressure invariably occurred, the maximum being 100 mm Hg with doses of 35–40 mg and was usually greatest about 15 to 20 seconds after the beginning of the injection. The blood pressure recovered rapidly so that two minutes later it was at or above the pre-injection level. It is hardly surprising that very low readings were obtained in cases in which asystole or pronounced bradycardia occurred but in several instances with doses giving only sinus slowing, significant falls of pressure were recorded which we attributed to arteriolar dilatation. In general, the fall in systolic pressure was greater than in diastolic pressure but the latter is difficult to determine accurately in observations of this type. The fall in systolic pressure was considerably greater than that previously recorded (Stoner and Green, 1945).

(3) *Changes in the Electrocardiogram* Lead II was used throughout the observations.

The effects of a given dose differed greatly in different patients but in the same patient, the response was sufficiently constant to enable variations produced by other procedures to be assessed. We did not observe the development of tolerance. In our observations on the effects of drugs, we always made at least one control observation immediately before giving the drug and one after the effect of the drug had worn off. We also always used samples of *ATP* from the same batch.

Small doses (5–15 mg) of *MgATP* produced a sinus tachycardia preceded by a short period of sinus slowing. Larger doses (15–30 mg) gave marked sinus slowing and always affected the conducting tissues producing first or second degree A-V block (Fig 9A and C). Wenckebach periods were often observed (Fig 10A). Maximum doses (30–40 mg) produced similar changes of greater intensity with an increase in the duration of heart block and in the number of dropped beats. Ventricular standstill (Fig 7) and complete asystole were observed in two patients. These effects are similar to those seen in the guinea pig (Fig 1). The results in Case 1 are summarized in Table II.

With the doses used, changes in the shape of the

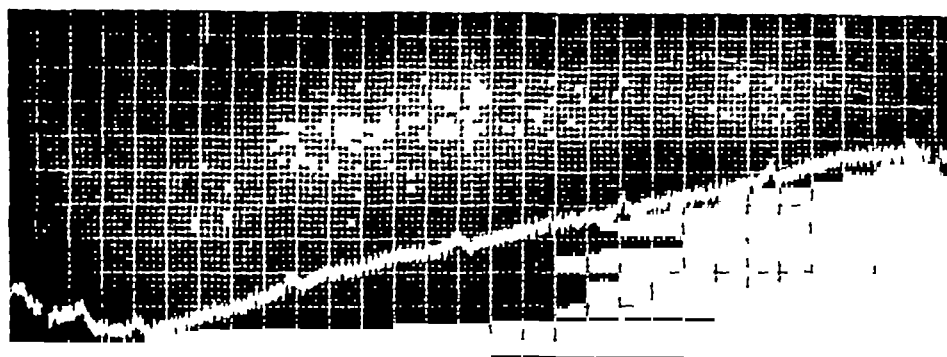


FIG 7—Case IV Effect of intravenous injection of *MgATP* on the electrocardiogram (lead II)
Shows ventricular standstill for 5.5 sec occurring 14 sec after injecting 19 mg *MgATP*
1 mV=1 cm 1 sec =2.5 cm

TABLE II
RESULTS OBTAINED IN CASE I

Dose of <i>MgATP</i> (Mg)	Other drugs	Maximum increase in P-R interval (Sec)	Wenckebach phenomenon	Number of dropped beats	Duration of block (Sec)	Sinus slowing	Remarks
30	—	0.20	+	1	6	+	Typical single observation Mean of 7 observations
30	—	0.14	—	1-2	8	+	
30	After 400 mg mepacrine orally	0.05	—	0	2.5	+	
30	After 100 mg paludrine orally	0.22	—	1	9	+	
35	—	0.28	+	1	9	+	Mean of 5 observations
35	—	0.16	+	1-2	6	+	
35	After 1.2 mg atropine intravenously	0	—	0	0	+	
35	After 2.4 mg atropine intravenously	0	0	0	0	+	
40	—	0.14	+	1	10	+	Mean of 2 observations
40	—	0.16	+	1-0	7.5	+	
40	After 1 g quinidine sulphate orally	0.06	—	1	2	++	
40	After 3 g quinine hydrochloride orally	0.04	—	0	0	++	

Table II shows the effects of *MgATP* on the heart and the effects of mepacrine, paludrine, quinidine, quinine, and atropine on the cardiac response to *MgATP*.

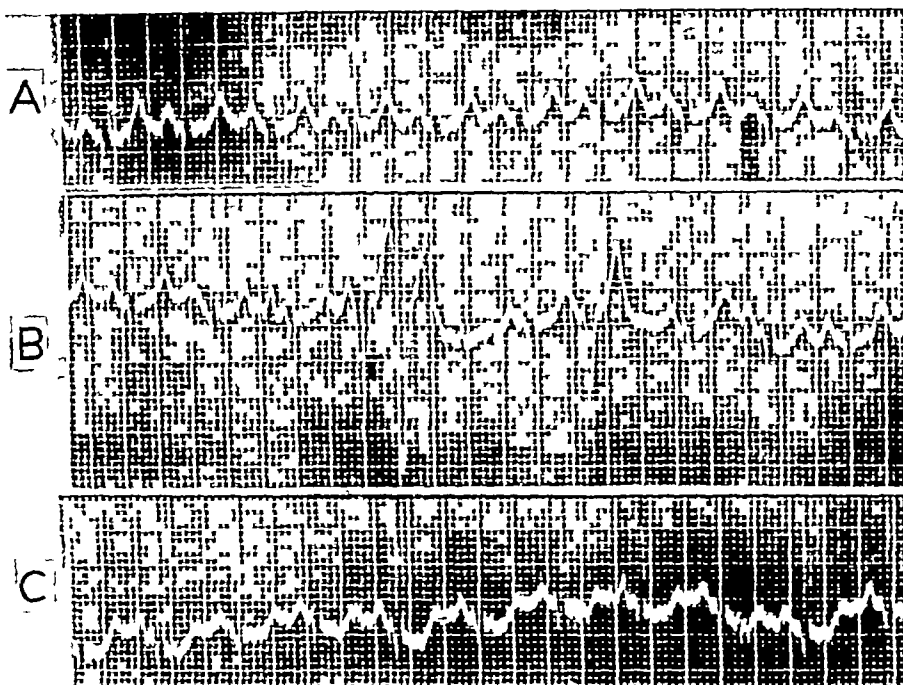


FIG 8—Case VII Effect of intravenous injection of *MgATP* on the electrocardiogram (lead II)

- (A) Before injection showing sinus tachycardia
 (B) 16 sec after injection of 15 mg *MgATP* showing 3 ventricular extrasystoles
 (C) 26 sec after the same injection, showing depression of the S-T segment

1 mV=1 cm

1 sec =2.5 cm

complexes were not produced as consistently as in the observations on animals. In Case 3, with doses of 20 to 30 mg, the P wave was depressed, a small Q wave appeared and the T wave became isoelectric or inverted. In Case 7, with doses of 10 to 15 mg, premature ventricular contractions were observed and later the S-T interval was significantly depressed. Heart block did not occur in this case with these doses and it was thought inadvisable to increase them. The curves from this case which were obtained on three separate occasions resemble closely those obtained in the cat (compare Fig 2 and 8).

Comparison of *MgATP* and Adenosine The effects of adenosine and *MgATP*, given in equimolecular amounts, were compared in 2 subjects (Cases 1 and 2). It was found that although adenosine produced the same type of change in cardiac rhythm as *MgATP* it was not as active.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE RESPONSE TO *ATP* AFTER THE INJECTION OF OTHER DRUGS

These observations fall into two main groups

Firstly an attempt was made to see whether the effects of magnesium sulphate and of vagal inactivation by atropine on the response to *ATP* in man were the same as those we had encountered in animals. The effects of adrenaline and quinidine were also investigated, the former because it is known to facilitate conduction down the bundle (Wiggers, 1927) and the latter because it might have been expected to increase the degree of conduction defect as in clinical cases of heart block (Lewis, 1925). Secondly, we investigated the effect of various anti-malarial drugs on the response of the human heart to *ATP* in view of the animal experiments of Raventós which we had partially confirmed.

Magnesium Sulphate This substance was given intravenously in a dose of 1.6 g $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (8 ml of 20 per cent solution) to 2 subjects, 7 to 10 minutes before the injection of *MgATP*. In both, there was a definite increase in the degree of heart block produced by *MgATP*. The results therefore resemble those obtained in animals.

Adrenaline Injections of *MgATP* were given to 2 subjects 5 minutes after an intramuscular injection

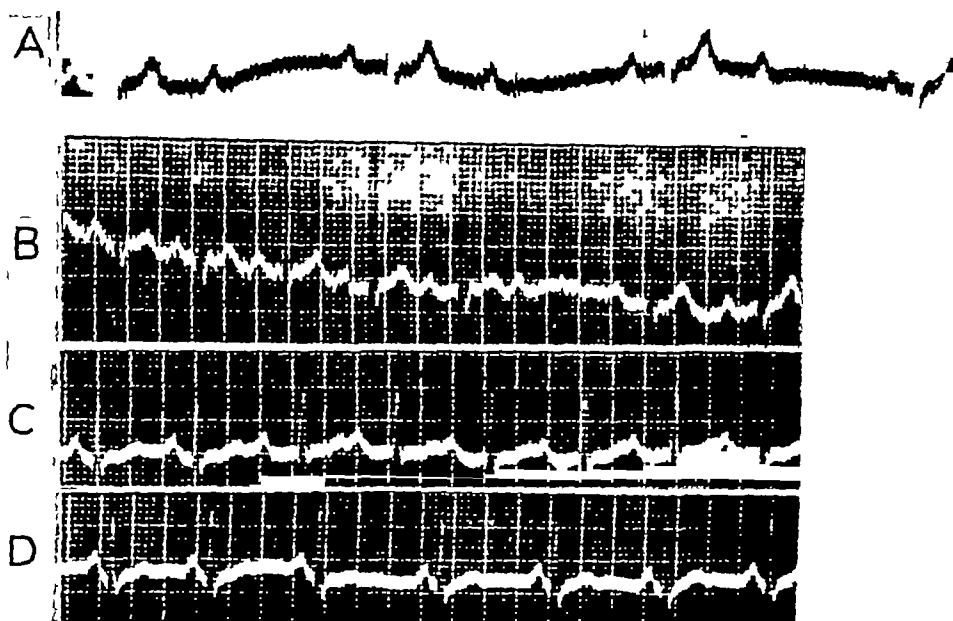


FIG 9—Effect of *MgATP* on the human electrocardiogram before and after intravenous injection of atropine

- (A) Case IV, 15 sec after injection of 17 mg *MgATP*
 (B) Case IV, 15 sec after injection of 17 mg *MgATP* Five minutes previously 2.5 mg atropine sulphate had been given intravenously
 (C) Case I, 15 sec after injection of 35 mg *MgATP*
 (D) Case I, 18 sec after injection of 35 mg *MgATP* Five minutes previously 1.2 mg atropine sulphate had been given intravenously

Both cases show reduction in the degree of heart block due to *MgATP* after atropine administration Sinus slowing is still seen

1 mV=1 cm

1 sec=2.5 cm

of 0.5 ml 1:1000 adrenaline hydrochloride and to 1 subject after 1.0 ml. The number of dropped beats and the duration of the block was reduced in each instance.

Atropine After control observations, 5 subjects were given atropine sulphate intravenously in doses usually considered sufficient to produce complete vagal paralysis. When the heart rate had risen to a stationary level, *MgATP* was given. Sinus slowing still occurred, but in two instances second degree A-V block was completely prevented. In the other observations the degree and duration of heart block was much less (Fig 9 and Table II).

Quinidine Two subjects (Cases I and VI) received 1 g of quinidine sulphate in divided doses, the last dose of 0.2 g being given half an hour before the injection of *MgATP*. The increase in P-R interval and the duration of heart block were significantly less than in the control observations

(Fig 10 and Table II). The degree of sinus slowing was the same.

Antimalarial drugs 1. **Quinine** Three grammes of quinine hydrochloride were given orally over 3 days to 4 subjects (Cases 1, 2, 4, and 6), the last dose being administered half to two hours before the injection of *MgATP*. The effects were similar to those obtained using quinidine and in one case A-V block was almost completely prevented (Fig 10E and Table II).

2. **Mepacrine** Three subjects (Cases 1, 2, and 6) received 0.4 g mepacrine hydrochloride by mouth over thirty-six hours, the last dose of 0.2 g being given two hours before the injection of *MgATP*. The degree and duration of heart block were significantly less than in control observations (Fig 10B and Table II).

3. **Paludrine** Three subjects (Cases 1, 2, and 6) were given 100 mg. paludrine hydrochloride by

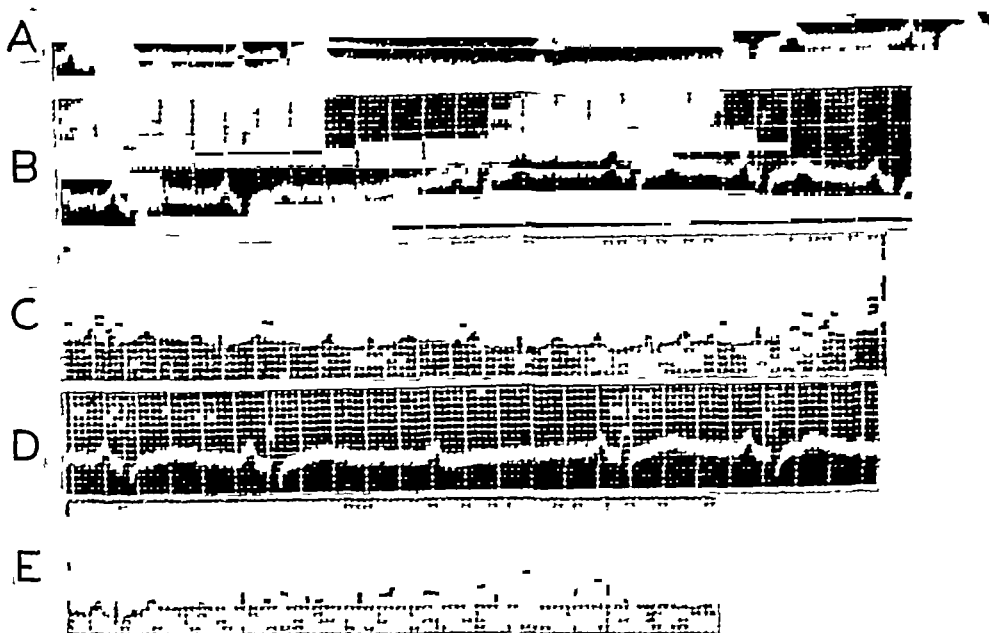


FIG 10—Case I Effect of mepacrine, quinidine, and quinine on the response to the intravenous injection of *MgATP* (lead II)

- (A) Control, 17 sec after injection of 30 mg *MgATP* Normal P-R interval for this case lay between 0.16 sec and 0.18 sec
 (B) Effect of mepacrine (for dosage, see text) 18 sec after injection of 30 mg *MgATP*
 (C) Control, 17 sec after injection of 40 mg *MgATP*
 (D) Effect of quinidine (for dosage, see text) 16 sec after injection of 40 mg *MgATP*
 (E) Effect of quinine (for dosage, see text) 17 sec after injection of 40 mg *MgATP*

Shows the reduction in the effect of *ATP* after certain antimalarial drugs

1 mV=1 cm

1 sec=2.5 cm

mouth and one (Case 4) 200 mg three hours before injection of *MgATP*. No reduction in the degree of block was noted. Indeed, in Case 4 the block persisted much longer than in control observations. We thought it inadvisable to investigate the effects of higher doses, because of toxic symptoms produced by the dosage given to Case 4.

DISCUSSION

These observations show that *ATP* has a profound effect on the conducting system of the heart causing changes in cardiac rhythm similar to those described for adenosine and muscle adenylic acid by Drury and Szent-Gyorgyi (1929). The action is essentially a depression of normal function with sinus slowing, prolongation of the P-R interval and the appearance of heart block. With sufficiently large doses this A-V block may be complete and complete asystole can also occur. In man these effects were often followed by a short period of sinus tachycardia but

the second phase of sinus bradycardia described by Drury and Szent-Gyorgyi (1929) was seldom seen in our observations, perhaps because we used smaller doses. With very small doses of *MgATP*, sinus tachycardia was (sometimes) the only effect produced. For the most part the effect of *ATP* was similar in the three species studied but there were certain interesting minor differences. Drury (1936) has emphasized that the site of the main action of the adenylic compounds differs in different species. As with the lower compounds, the main action of *ATP* in the guinea pig is upon the A-V node whereas in man and the cat, especially in the latter, the main effect is upon the S-A node. An illustration of this is the more frequent occurrence of complete asystole in the cat than in the guinea pig.

McDowall (unpublished report to the Medical Research Council, 1944) first pointed out that the vagi participated in the cardiovascular response to *ATP* in the cat and this has been fully confirmed by

us both here and elsewhere (Bielchowsky, Green, and Stoner, 1946, Green and Stoner, 1949) We found that amongst the common laboratory animals this reaction was only seen in the cat and that in this animal it was only *ATP* which acted in this way The present studies, in addition to giving some information on the efferent mechanism of this reflex, also show that the vagi are similarly involved in man Experiments on the vagotomized cat indicate that the sinus bradycardia after *ATP* is in part due to its action through the vagi In man, with the vagi paralysed by atropine, the reduction in the degree of sinus slowing was not so marked but the elimination of the A-V block was very striking

Direct comparison of the changes in cardiac rhythm produced by equimolecular amounts of adenosine and *ATP* showed that the effects were the same in the guinea pig but not in the cat or man, i.e. in the two species where the vagus is involved A similar effect was, however, seen in the cat after the vagi had been divided These findings are in agreement with those on the isolated perfused rabbit's heart (Green and Stoner, 1949) which showed that the effect of these compounds on the conducting system is essentially due to their adenosine content

Alterations in the cardiac rhythm are not the only changes seen after the injection of *ATP* Various other changes occurred, notably ventricular extrasystoles and displacement of the S-T segment, which are best attributed to a direct action on the myocardium This effect is not seen after adenosine for as Drury (1932) and Green and Stoner (1949) have shown it is only the phosphorylated derivatives which possess this action

That *ATP* has this action on the myocardium may be of some practical importance Adenosine and muscle adenylic acid, often mixed with other substances in the form of tissue extracts, have been widely used in the treatment of cardiac and peripheral vascular disease The alleged beneficial effects have been attributed to vasodilatation of the coronary and peripheral vessels and to a direct action on the myocardium It seems improbable that, in the doses given and using the routes of administration advised, beneficial results would be likely to ensue But, in view of the greater general activity and more definite role of *ATP* in muscle metabolism, it is probable that attempts will be made to use this substance in the therapy of cardiovascular disease In view of the ectopic beats and alterations in the S-T segment observed by us this would seem unjustifiable If it is given in the treatment of other types of disease it should be given by slow intravenous injection or intramuscularly Unfortunately, when given by the latter route the

dose must be large and absorption is irregular

It is of great interest that the cardiac effects of *ATP* are capable of being influenced by the previous administration of other substances, one of the most important of which is Mg^{++} The striking effect of this ion in increasing the shock-inducing action of *ATP* and altering its action on the cardiovascular system have been dealt with elsewhere (Green and Stoner, 1944, Bielchowsky, Green, and Stoner, 1946) The electrocardiographic observations described here show that Mg^{++} administration increases the effect of *ATP* on the conducting system whilst decreasing its effect on the myocardium Similar effects were observed in experiments on the isolated perfused rabbit's heart This phenomenon is thought to be due to the interference of Mg^{++} in the enzymic breakdown of *ATP* (Green and Stoner, 1949)

Although *ATP* has such a powerful effect on the conducting system of the heart it would seem that this action can still be antagonized by adrenaline This action of adrenaline in facilitating conduction through the bundle has been subject to very little experimental investigation in the past largely due to the difficulties of producing graded heart block under experimental conditions Our observations, therefore, may indicate an approach to this problem

Quinine, quinidine, and mepacrine also clearly hinder the development of the *ATP* effect but it is not at all clear why they should have this action Indeed one might have expected *ATP* to have had a greater effect after the administration of these compounds Our failure to elicit a similar effect with paludrine even when, in animals, very large doses were given, prevents us from agreeing with Raventós (1948), that there is an antagonism between the antimalarial drugs and the cardiac effects of the adenylic derivatives The antagonism would seem to be between these compounds and certain members of the quinoline and acridine series The further aspects of this antagonism are dealt with elsewhere (Green and Stoner, 1949) Whilst no explanation of the mechanism involved can yet be given there is no evidence to suggest that it is due to the interference of these quinoline and acridine derivatives in the metabolism of nucleotide

SUMMARY

The effect of the intravenous injection of adenosine triphosphate (*ATP*) on the electrocardiogram has been studied in human subjects, cats and guinea pigs

The effect of *ATP* on cardiac rhythm varies with the dose Whilst very small doses may give sinus tachycardia, the normal effect is to cause sinus slowing, prolongation of the A-V interval and second degree A-V block Large doses frequently

cause standstill either of the ventricles or the whole heart

ATP acts mainly on the S-A node in the cat and man but mainly on the A-V node in the guinea pig

It has been shown that part of the *ATP* effect in the cat and man is mediated through the vagus

Equimolecular amounts of adenosine will reproduce the effect of *ATP* on cardiac rhythm in the guinea pig and also in the cat if the vagi are first inactivated

The effects of *ATP* are not confined to cardiac rhythm, and other changes in the electrocardiographic complexes were seen in both man and animals which were thought to be due to a direct action on the myocardium. These changes were not seen after adenosine

The effect of the previous administration of certain compounds on the response to *ATP* was also observed with the following results

- (1) *Magnesium sulphate* increased the effect on cardiac rhythm and decreased the action on the myocardium

- (2) *Adrenaline* shortened the period of heart block

- (3) *Quinine, quinidine, and mepacrine* all decreased the effect on cardiac rhythm

- (4) *Paludrine* had no significant effect on the response

ATP administered intravenously for periods up to three months produced no significant improvement in 15 cases of rheumatoid arthritis

The significance of these observations and their relationship to other of our findings has been discussed

We wish to thank Professor H N Green for his advice and Dr K H Hardy of Wharncliffe E M S Hospital for providing the curves of Case 7

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FAMILIAL CARDIOMEGALY

BY

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When valvular, hypertensive, and congenital heart disease have been excluded as causes of cardiac enlargement, some rarer condition should be sought, but only after excluding bradycardia, pericardial disease, sternal depression, or an elevated diaphragm, which by themselves without real enlargement produce an exaggerated cardiac silhouette on cardioscopy. Such being eliminated, there remains a group where the cause of cardiac enlargement is obscure, and it is the purpose of this paper to describe cases with common subjective and objective symptoms, and to propose a syndrome that serves to explain a hitherto ambiguous form of cardiac enlargement and facilitates clinical diagnosis of the condition.

NOTES OF THREE CASES IN ONE FAMILY

Case 1 Male, aged 18 years. He was referred by a service medical board which sought an explanation for the displacement of his apex beat. He admitted to no symptoms at the time and he appeared to be a well-developed healthy youth. The pulse was irregular from extrasystoles with brief periods of paroxysmal tachycardia. The blood pressure was 120/80. The apex beat was forcible and was displaced as far as the left anterior axillary line. The heart sounds were clear and there were no murmurs. A triple rhythm was present from the addition of the third heart sound. There was no enlargement of the liver or spleen, and further examination found no abnormal signs elsewhere including the central nervous system. The Wassermann reaction was negative. The blood sugar and cholesterol were both normal, and so was the sugar tolerance test, there was no ketosis. The cardiogram (Fig 1) showed extrasystoles and exceptionally wide QRS complexes with inverted T waves. On cardioscopy (Fig 3) there was great enlargement of the heart, and particularly of the left ventricle, the border of which was remarkably quiet compared with the mobile right auricle.

While under observation for two months, the extrasystoles became more frequent and when attacks of paroxysmal tachycardia increased in number and severity, the patient was handicapped in his work at times by giddiness. At last, when tachycardia (Fig 2) persisted for two days, pulmonary oedema (Fig 4) developed and he died on the third day.

Summary of Necropsy (PM 121/1947) By Professor Dorothy Russell of the Bernhard Baron Institute of Pathology.

Acute pulmonary oedema. Heart failure. Familial Cardiomegaly. Clear yellow pericardial effusion (4 oz.) Slight whitish opacity of most of visceral pericardium over both ventricles. Milk-spot (2.5 by 1.2 cm) on anterior surface of right ventricle. Foramen ovale patent (about 1 cm diameter), the orifice being valvular. Great thickening (up to 4 cm) of myocardium of left ventricle, without appreciable dilatation, composed of pale brown moderately firm tissue blotched with numerous ill defined pale areas of fibrosis (Fig 5). Similar proportionate thickening of other chambers of heart (Fig 6), but least marked of left auricle (5 cm diameter, 0.4 cm thick). All valves normal apart from congenital fenestration of two pulmonary cusps. Coronary arteries normal and enlarged in proportion to ventricles, no atheroma. Aorta of normal circumference (6 cm at ring, and 0.2 to 0.25 cm thick). Very slight atheroma. Early mucinous degeneration of media of aorta found microscopically.

Clear yellow pleural effusions (right, 12 oz., left, 5 oz.) Almost solid oedema of right lung, showing microscopically variable numbers of red corpuscles and phagocytes in alveolar spaces, purulent bronchitis and early broncho-pneumonia present in a few places. Left lung similar but showing, microscopically, a layer of fibrin coating respiratory bronchioles and some alveoli. Enlargement of gland at tracheal bifurcation, and another above right bronchus, by miliary and larger caseous

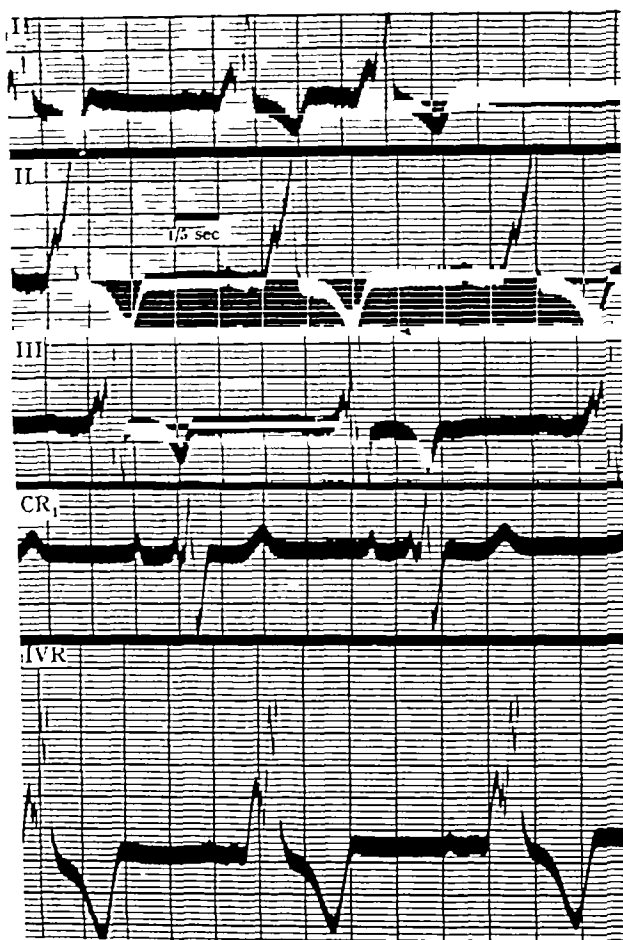


FIG 1—Electrocardiogram from Case 1. Sinus rhythm with extrasystoles, exceptionally wide QRS complexes with four R waves showing in IVR and deep inversion of the T waves in many leads.

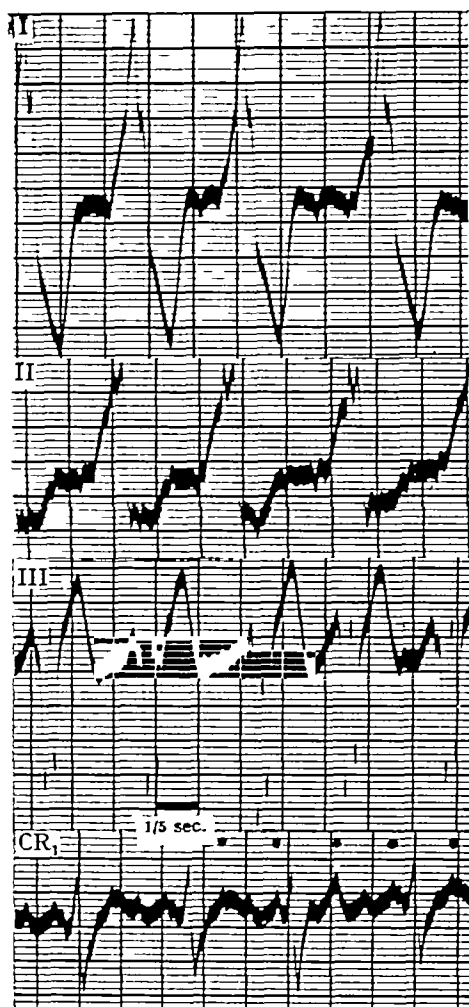


FIG 2—Electrocardiogram from Case 1. Paroxysmal tachycardia with a high auricular rate and A-V dissociation.

tubercles with considerable focal fibrosis. No tuberculosis found in lungs. Central congestion of liver. Chronic congestion and oedema of spleen, showing microscopically two miliary tubercles in pulp. One old infarct in spleen and one in right kidney. Congestion and severe post-mortem degeneration of kidneys. Persistent glandular thymus. No abnormality, macroscopic or microscopic, in endocrine glands (Only one parathyroid identified). Post-mortem digestion of stomach. No macroscopic or microscopic abnormality found in brain or spinal cord. Middle ears normal. Cyanosis of extremities. No sub-

cutaneous oedema. A well developed and well nourished young man.

Weights. Body, 62.5 kg (height, 1.7 m), heart, 1134 g, liver, 1921 g, kidneys, 333 g, spleen, 333 g, brain, 1495 g, suprarenals, 13 g, thyroid, 56 g, thymus, 20 g, testes, 21 g, pituitary, 0.6 g.

Microscopic examination. Portions of the left ventricle and right auricle were fixed in Bouin's fixative. The rest of the heart was fixed in formaldehyde, blocks being taken on the following day from both ventricles, interventricular septum, and sino-auricular node. In addition to hæmatoxylin and

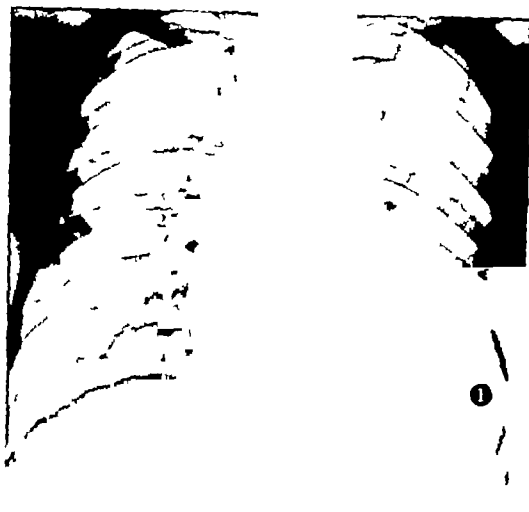


FIG 3—Teleradiogram from Case 1. Great enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1), much pulmonary congestion (2)

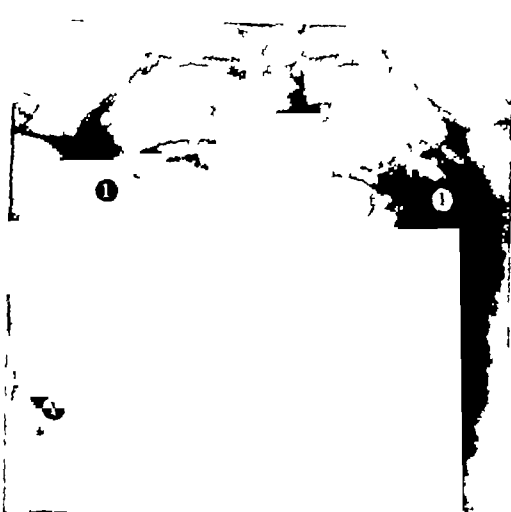


FIG 4—Teleradiogram from Case 1. Pulmonary oedema (1) is added to the great cardiac enlargement seen in Fig 3

eosin, iron hæmatoxylin and van Gieson and phosphotungstic-acid hæmatoxylin, sections from all blocks were stained by Best's carmine for glycogen. Frozen sections of a piece of left ventricle were stained with Sudan III for fat.

Heart In all parts examined there is dense patchy fibrosis of the myocardium, especially beneath the endocardium and pericardium, and gross hypertrophy of the muscle fibres (Fig 7). The hypertrophy often appears greatest where there is most fibrosis. In ordinary stains the fibres are occasionally greatly vacuolated, but vacuolation in general is rather inconspicuous, except in phosphotungstic-acid hæmatoxylin preparations, where high magnifications frequently reveal clusters of small vacuoles in the centres of fibres, or groups of reddish-brown granules in a similar situation. In such fibres the longitudinal fibrils are restricted to the periphery of the muscle cell and cross-striation is lost. Cross-striation is preserved in many fibres devoid of vacuoles and granules. There is no fatty degeneration. The Bouin-fixed sections show conspicuous deposits of glycogen in many scattered fibres in both left ventricle and right auricle. There are no circumscribed areas in which all or most fibres are so affected, the change is diffuse. A good deal of finely granular material stained by Best's carmine is present in the intermuscular connective tissue and in the walls of capillaries. In the formalin-fixed tissue, however, there is little evidence of glycogen. The fibrous tissue in the myocardium contains few

spindle cells and occasional small lymphocytes which are mostly perivascular. Occasional larger clumps of small round cells appear to be due to submiliary granulomatous tubercles, one being identified with certainty in the interventricular septum, and one in the pericardium of the left ventricle. The pericardium elsewhere is little affected, there are a few small lymphocytes about the vessels, which are engorged. No changes were found in the special muscle fibres of the conducting system.

Liver In a block fixed in Bouin's fluid there is great congestion and atrophy of the centres of the lobules, in places adjacent atrophied areas are confluent. There is no fibrosis. A good deal of glycogen is present as fine cytoplasmic granules in the better preserved cells of the periportal parenchyma.

Muscle Portions of the tongue and vastus externus muscle were fixed in Bouin's fluid. In the tongue glycogen is restricted to the squamous epithelium and some cells of the mucous glands. In the vastus externus large quantities of glycogen are present, some being in the muscle fibres but most has escaped into the interstitial tissue. Patchy vacuolation of the fibres is demonstrated by other stains, but the degree of vacuolation appears trivial in comparison with the amount of glycogen. A special search for glycogen was made in Bouin fixed material from the kidney, spleen, and central nervous system with negative results.



FIG 5—Photogram of the heart in Case 1. There is very great general hypertrophy and especially of the left ventricle (1) which shows grey patches of fibrosis (2).

Case 2 Male, aged 20 years. His appearance was healthy and he complained of no symptoms when he was referred by a service medical board because of great outward displacement of the apex beat. Later he admitted that during the past six months he had been compelled through giddiness to halt the omnibus he drove, but had never lost consciousness. The pulse was normal in rate and irregular from auricular fibrillation. The blood

pressure was 125/80. The apex beat was near the left anterior axillary line and was forcible. The heart sounds were clear and there were no murmurs. Triple heart rhythm was present from addition of the third heart sound. There was no enlargement of the liver, nor of the spleen, and on examination the other systems, including the nervous system, were normal. The blood sugar and the blood cholesterol were both normal. The electrocardiogram showed

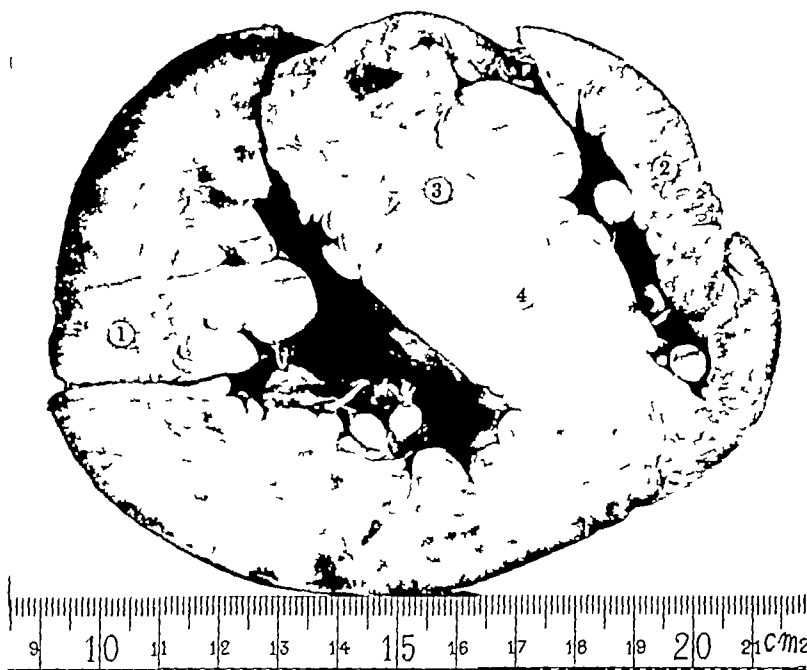


FIG 6—Cross-cut of the heart in Case 1 to show great hypertrophy of the left ventricle (1) right ventricle (2) and the septum (3), which shows extensive fibrosis (4)

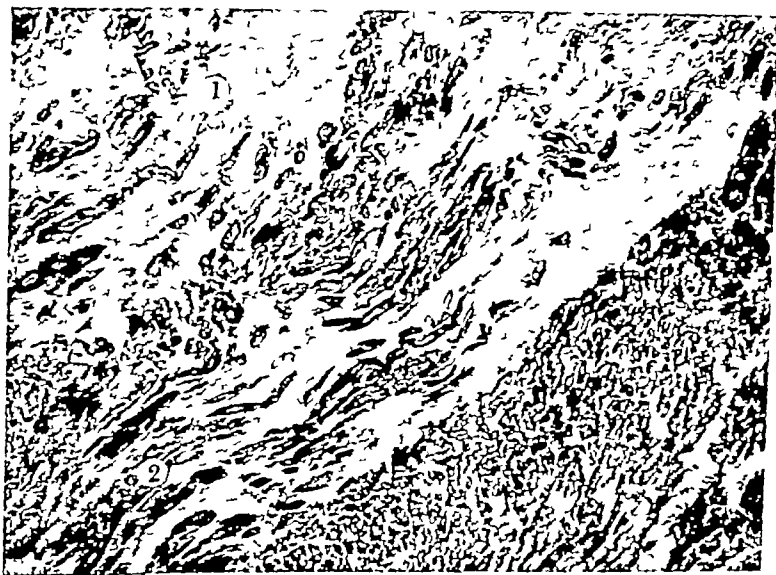


FIG 7—Microscopical section of the myocardium from Case 1 showing great fibrosis (1) and hypertrophy of surviving muscle fibres (2)

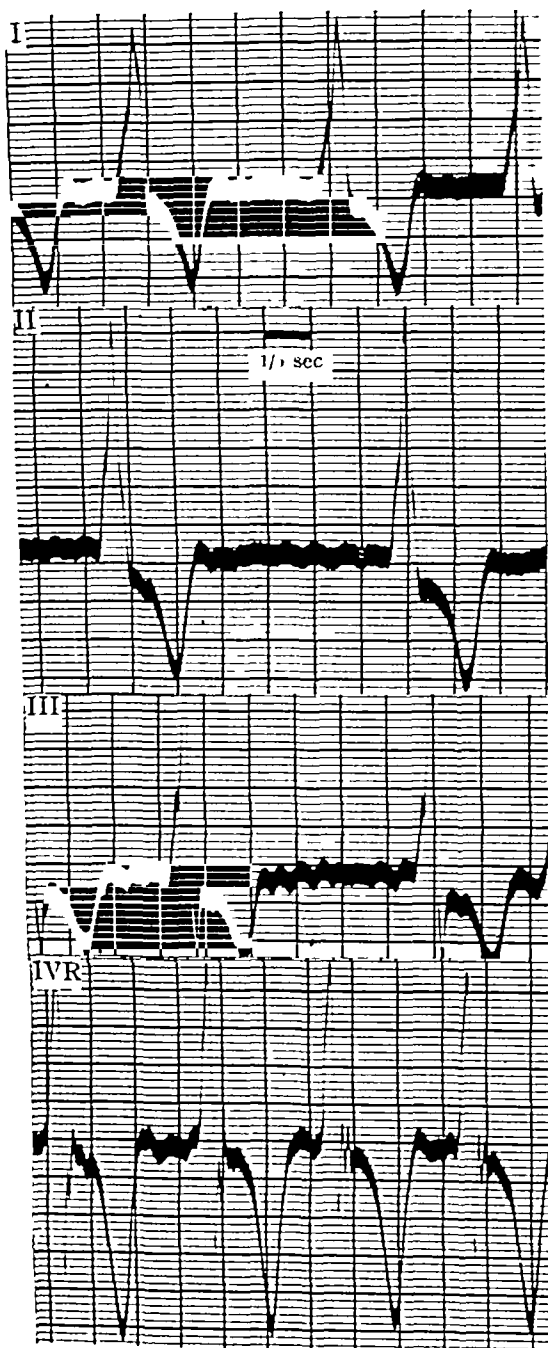


FIG 8—Electrocardiogram from Case 2 Auricular fibrillation wide QRS complexes with deep inversion of the T waves in all leads

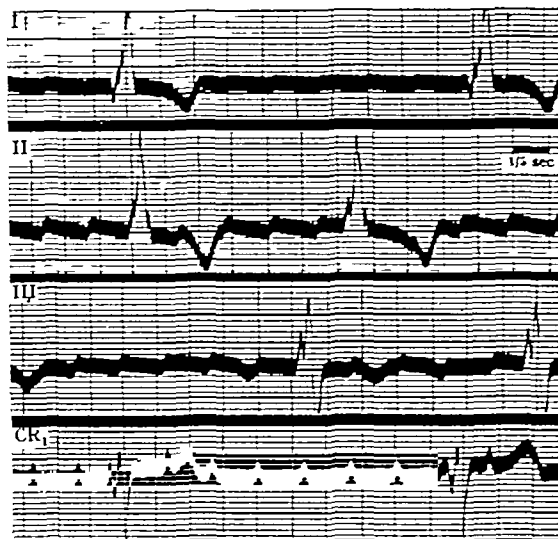


FIG 9—Electrocardiogram from Case 2 Auricular flutter with slow ventricular rate Varying A-V dissociation

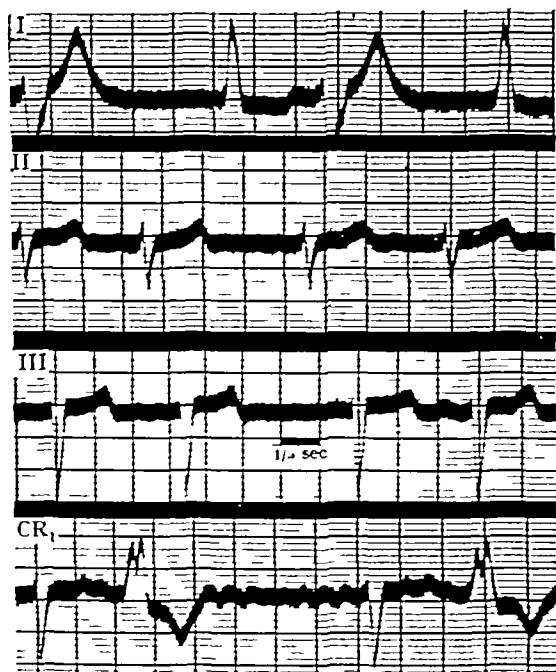


FIG 10—Electrocardiogram from Case 3 Auricular fibrillation and extrasystoles the T wave is inverted in lead I, and the R wave is small in CR₁

auricular fibrillation, exceptionally wide QRS complexes, and deeply inverted T waves (Fig 8) Another time (Fig 9) he showed auricular tachycardia with infrequent ventricular rate On cardioscopy (Fig 11) there was great enlargement of the heart, and particularly of the left ventricle, the left border of which was remarkably quiet compared with the pulsatile right auricle at the opposite cardiac border

Case 3 Female, aged 43 years For 12 years she had suffered from infrequent but severe syncopal attacks Her pulse was about 70 a minute and was irregular from auricular fibrillation The blood pressure was 130/90 The apex beat was displaced outwards and was forcible The heart sounds were clear and there were no murmurs There was conspicuous splitting of the second heart sound and this was confirmed by the phonocardiogram There was no enlargement of the liver nor spleen, and examination of other systems showed no abnormal signs There were extrasystoles and auricular fibrillation with inversion of the T I (Fig 10) On cardioscopy (Fig 12) there was moderate enlargement of the heart, and especially of the left ventricle

These three patients illustrate the familial and hereditary nature of the illness, Cases 1 and 2 were brothers and were the sons of Case 3, whose husband

and a third son, aged 17 years, were healthy, an infant son had died at the age of 18 months from "heart trouble", her parents died at the ages of 34 and 35, but the manner of their deaths could not be ascertained, a brother and sister as well as their offspring were healthy, one sister died suddenly in a tramcar at the age of 26 although she was thought to be healthy up to that time, another sister died unexpectedly at the age of 30, a brother while on his way to work one morning dropped dead on the pavement at the age of 21, details of necropsy in these cases cannot be traced, but the manner of their deaths makes it likely that at least six members in two generations of the same family suffered from the condition that is described here (Fig 13) A family history of the same illness was also obtained from a patient reported at the Massachusetts General Hospital (1942) and also in one described by Addani and Mahaim (1946)

In addition to the three cases already described there were six others whose symptomatology and clinical signs were so similar as to make me believe that they suffered from the same condition In one where a necropsy was carried out, fibrosis of the myocardium was found to be the underlying lesion as in Case 1, but no family history of the condition could be obtained from any of the six cases, although in none had it been possible to examine other members of the family

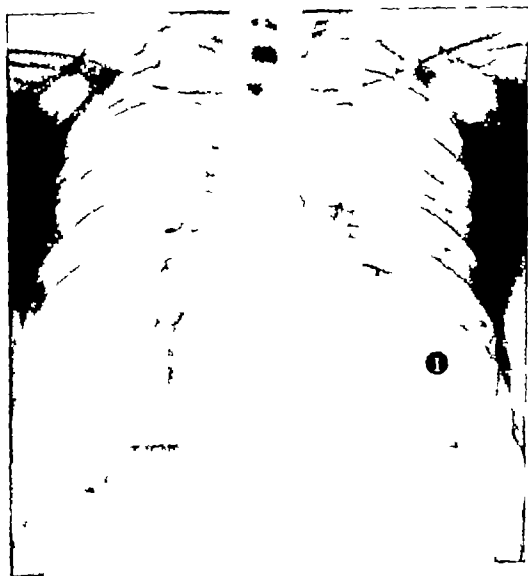


FIG 11—Teleradiogram from Case 2 showing great general enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1)



FIG 12—Teleradiogram from Case 3 showing moderate general enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1)

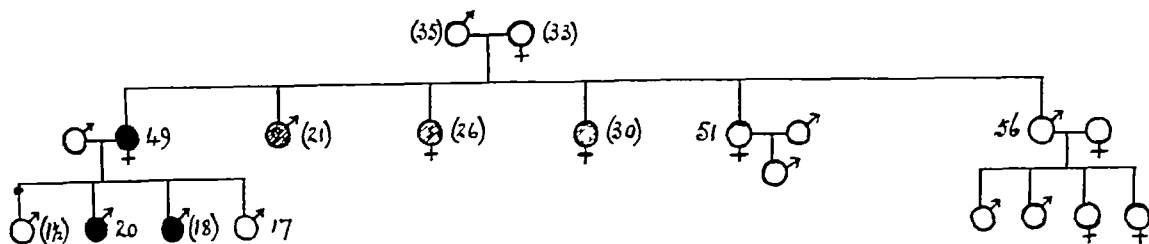


FIG 13—Scheme identifying patients affected with Familial Cardiomegaly in one family. The black symbols represent members suffering from familial cardiomegaly, the shaded symbols indicate members probably affected by the same illness, the unshaded symbols are unaffected members. The numerals are the ages in years, and when bracketed they indicate the age at death.

OTHER CASE NOTES

Case 4 Male, aged 35 years. Two years before he was rejected for military service by a medical board which advised him not to do any heavy work. He remained well until a month before when he fainted in a chair and afterwards discovered a lump on the back of his head which he supposed had resulted from his head falling backward on to the chair. Thereafter he experienced spells of giddiness which made him uncertain of himself when walking, but when they passed he would feel quite well. Only once did he lose consciousness. No other members of the family were similarly affected.

His appearance was healthy. The pulse was slow (52 a minute), and was irregular from extrasystoles, which disappeared for a short time after exercise.

The blood pressure was 115/70. The apex beat reached the anterior axillary line and was forcible in character with a double impulse. There was no thrill. A triple heart rhythm was present from the addition of the third heart sound and this was confirmed by the phonocardiograph. There were no murmurs. Further routine clinical examination showed no abnormal signs in other systems. The electrocardiogram (Fig 14) showed bradycardia, bundle branch block, and extrasystoles. On cardioscopy (Fig 16) there was great generalized enlargement of the heart. The Wassermann reaction was negative. He continued with his work, but complained of giddiness on occasions. Three years later there was another syncopal attack, but he recovered only to fall dead as he was walking home from work. There was no necropsy.

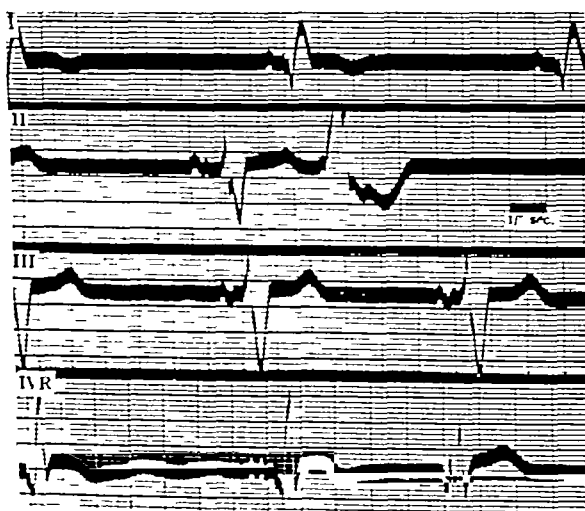


FIG 14—Electrocardiogram from Case 4. Sinus bradycardia with extrasystoles, wide QRS complexes, prominent Q, R-T deviation, and inversion of the T wave in lead I. Q wave and R-T deviation in IVR.

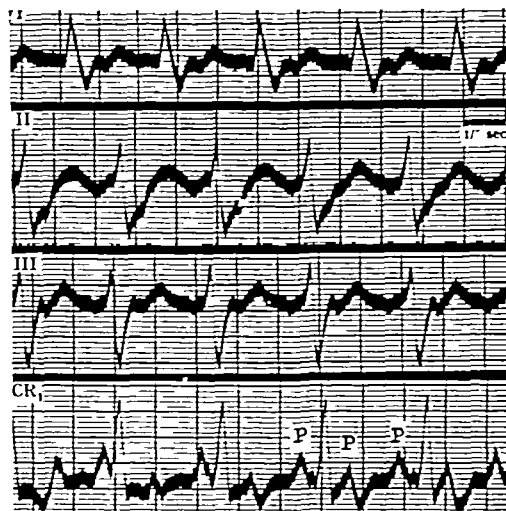


FIG 15—Electrocardiogram from Case 5 during an attack of paroxysmal tachycardia with 2 to 1 A-V dissociation which is best seen in CR1.

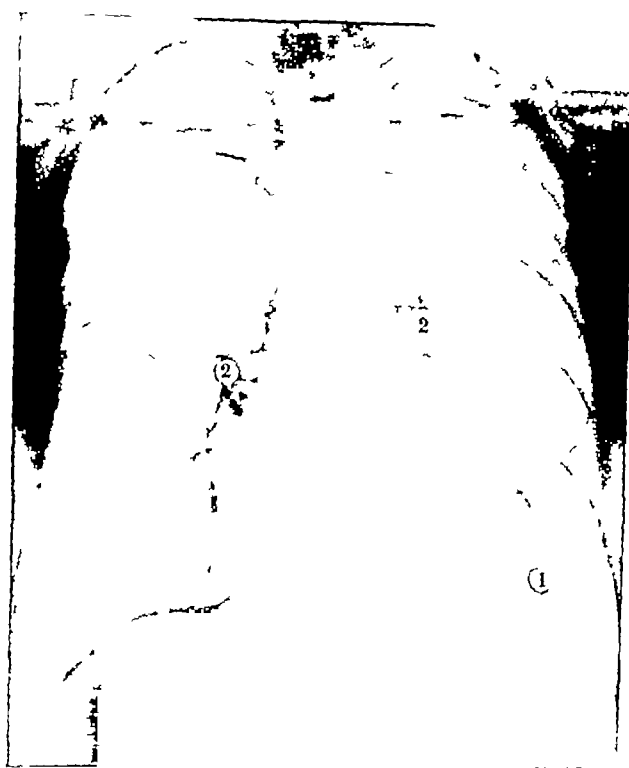


FIG 16—Teleradiogram from Case 4 Great enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1) pulmonary congestion (2)

Case 5 woman, aged 63 years Three years before, she complained of dizziness and at times lost consciousness Later, palpitation became troublesome and she said that the heart occasionally beat very rapidly The pulse was 56 and irregular from extrasystoles, and she was sometimes found with paroxysmal tachycardia There was no hypertension The apex beat was displaced outwards as far as the anterior axillary line and it was diffuse and forcible There was an obvious triple heart rhythm from addition of the third heart sound A systolic murmur in the mitral area occupied mid-systole and there were no diastolic murmurs Although the thyroid was enlarged, there were no signs of thyroïd toxæmia There were no abnormal signs in any other system At one time sinus bradycardia with ventricular complexes of bundle branch block, and at other times paroxysmal tachycardia with 2 to 1 (Fig 15) or a higher grade A-V dissociation, were seen On cardioscopy (Fig 17) there was great enlargement of the heart, particularly of the right side She is still alive

Case 6 Woman, aged 62 years She was ad-

mitted to hospital for attacks of palpitation 15 years ago, although the arrhythmia did not recur in hospital, radiological examination showed enlargement of the heart Throughout the years she continued to experience these attacks and in two of them she lost consciousness Two years ago an electrocardiogram showed sinus bradycardia and bundle branch block Twelve months ago a cardiogram during the attack showed auricular fibrillation and she again reverted to normal rhythm There were more episodes of paroxysmal auricular fibrillation, and unconsciousness once from cerebral embolism She gradually recovered from the paralysis and for three months she had not experienced any palpitation while the heart rhythm continued as auricular fibrillation with infrequent ventricular rate The cardiogram showed right bundle branch block in addition to fibrillation The blood pressure was normal The apex beat was out a little way and there was moderate cardiac enlargement No triple heart rhythm was present at the single clinical examination There was no enlargement of the liver or spleen and the urine was clear Since the auricular fibrillation became established the syncopal attacks had become less frequent

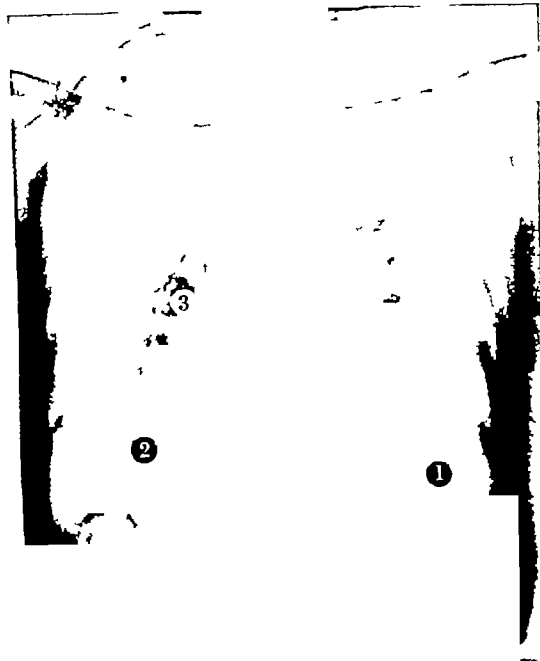


FIG 17—Teleradiogram from Case 5. There is enlargement of the left ventricle (1) and especially of the right auricle (2). Pulmonary congestion (3).



FIG 18—Teleradiogram from Case 7, showing enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1).



FIG 19—Teleradiogram from Case 9 showing great enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1) with pulmonary congestion (2).

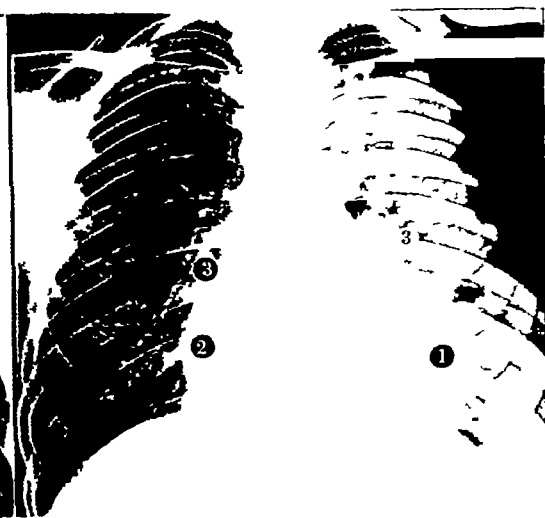


FIG 20—Teleradiogram from Case 8 showing generalized enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1) and right auricle (2), as well as pulmonary congestion (3).

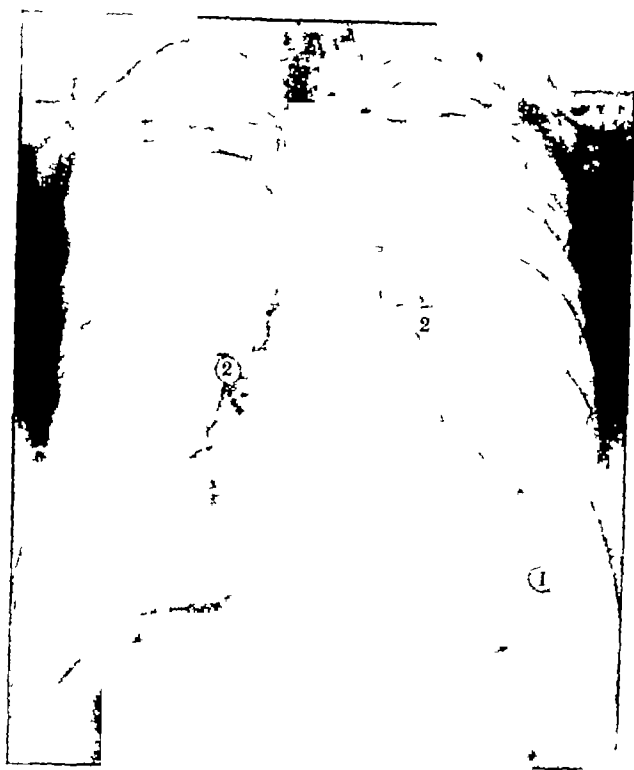


FIG 16—Teleradiogram from Case 4. Great enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1) pulmonary congestion (2)

Case 5 woman, aged 63 years. Three years before, she complained of dizziness and at times lost consciousness. Later, palpitation became troublesome and she said that the heart occasionally beat very rapidly. The pulse was 56 and irregular from extrasystoles, and she was sometimes found with paroxysmal tachycardia. There was no hypertension. The apex beat was displaced outwards as far as the anterior axillary line and it was diffuse and forcible. There was an obvious triple heart rhythm from addition of the third heart sound. A systolic murmur in the mitral area occupied mid-systole and there were no diastolic murmurs. Although the thyroid was enlarged, there were no signs of thyroid toxæmia. There were no abnormal signs in any other system. At one time sinus bradycardia with ventricular complexes of bundle branch block, and at other times paroxysmal tachycardia with 2 to 1 (Fig 15) or a higher grade A-V dissociation, were seen. On cardioscopy (Fig 17) there was great enlargement of the heart, particularly of the right side. She is still alive.

Case 6 Woman, aged 62 years. She was ad-

mitted to hospital for attacks of palpitation 15 years ago, although the arrhythmia did not recur in hospital, radiological examination showed enlargement of the heart. Throughout the years she continued to experience these attacks and in two of them she lost consciousness. Two years ago an electrocardiogram showed sinus bradycardia and bundle branch block. Twelve months ago a cardiogram during the attack showed auricular fibrillation and she again reverted to normal rhythm. There were more episodes of paroxysmal auricular fibrillation, and unconsciousness once from cerebral embolism. She gradually recovered from the paralysis and for three months she had not experienced any palpitation while the heart rhythm continued as auricular fibrillation with infrequent ventricular rate. The cardiogram showed right bundle branch block in addition to fibrillation. The blood pressure was normal. The apex beat was out a little way and there was moderate cardiac enlargement. No triple heart rhythm was present at the single clinical examination. There was no enlargement of the liver or spleen and the urine was clear. Since the auricular fibrillation became established the syncopal attacks had become less frequent.



FIG 17—Teleradiogram from Case 5. There is enlargement of the left ventricle (1) and especially of the right auricle (2). Pulmonary congestion (3).



FIG 18—Teleradiogram from Case 7, showing enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1).

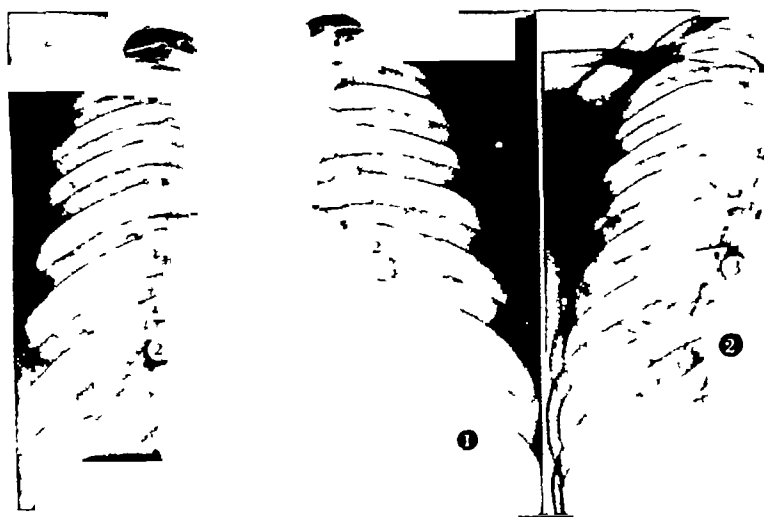


FIG 19—Teleradiogram from Case 9, showing great enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1) with pulmonary congestion (2).



FIG 20—Teleradiogram from Case 8 showing generalized enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle (1) and right auricle (2), as well as pulmonary congestion (3).

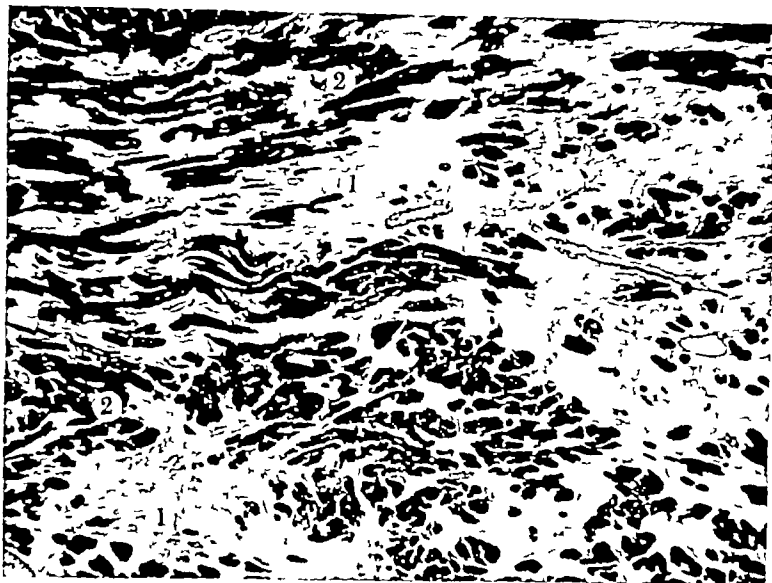


FIG 21 —Microscopical section of the myocardium from Case 8 showing great fibrosis (1) and hypertrophy of surviving muscle fibres (2)

Case 7 Man, aged 41 years Although he had complained of breathlessness on exertion for some years he had not sought medical advice, and enlargement of the heart was discovered on routine mass radiography He had neither palpitation nor giddiness No other members of the family complained of heart trouble, but none of them was examined

The pulse was regular and 76 a minute The blood pressure was 120/85 The apex beat was in the left anterior axillary line A systolic murmur was heard in late systole in the mitral area and there was prominent splitting of the second heart sound which was confirmed in the phonocardiogram There were no diastolic murmurs

There was no enlargement of the liver and no other abnormal physical signs The urine was clear The electrocardiogram showed bundle branch block On cardioscopy (Fig 18) there was considerable enlargement of the heart especially involving the left ventricle, there was no pulmonary congestion

Case 8 Boy, aged 12 years His mother said that for several months he had been subject to attacks of fainting Three such attacks occurred in the previous fortnight They had all taken place while he was at school There was never any warning and he would fall down suddenly In one attack he hurt his head badly when it banged against the floor There were no other complaints, and the mother had been told he had epilepsy There was no family history of a similar illness

The boy looked healthy The pulse was rather slow (60 a minute) and was regular The blood

pressure was low (105/50) The apex beat was out a little way and he showed a short soft systolic murmur There was triple heart rhythm No other physical signs presented and there was no enlargement of the liver or spleen The urine was clear The cardiogram (Fig 22) showed sinus rhythm at a slow rate (48 a minute) and a very high voltage The P-R period was not prolonged nor was the QRS period There was deviation of the R-T segments, and the T waves were diphasic in certain leads On cardioscopy (Fig 20) there was generalized enlargement of the heart and especially of the left ventricle

He continued to suffer from epileptiform attacks Four years later, at the age of 16, he developed acute appendicitis and recovered uneventfully from the operation The day following his discharge from hospital while walking home from the cinema he was seized with severe breathlessness and died on his way to hospital

At necropsy there was considerable enlargement of the heart (weight not recorded), and particularly of the base of the left ventricle There was no embolism and no abnormality of the coronary circulation On microscopical examination there was great hypertrophy of the myocardial fibres of the left ventricle with much interstitial fibrosis (Fig 21) (See appendix for mother's history)

Case 9 Man, aged 33 years He was without symptoms apart from palpitation until three months before when he began to get breathless on exertion His voice had altered and this brought him to hospital where palsy of the left recurrent laryngeal nerve was found The pulse was irregular from

extrasystoles and the nature of the arrhythmia was confirmed by the cardiogram (Fig 23) which also showed wide QRS complexes like those of bundle branch block. The apex beat was displaced outwards as far as the left anterior axillary line and radiological examination confirmed the presence of great enlargement of the heart (Fig 19). The blood pressure was 120/75. The first heart sound showed splitting and there was a slight systolic murmur in the mitral area. The house physician did not note that any triple heart rhythm was present. There were no other abnormal signs. The urine was clear. The sugar tolerance test was normal and the Wassermann reaction was negative. He left hospital without a definite diagnosis having been made. He died a few months later but there was no necropsy.

DISCUSSION

Unexplained cardiac enlargement is not common. Now and again, however, there comes for diagnosis a patient in whom the cause of an enlarged heart is not obvious. In older patients hypertension may explain cardiac hypertrophy, even though the blood pressure at the time is normal, perhaps reduced by cardiac infarction which can by itself cause a moderate or greater degree of cardiac enlargement. In a younger patient such diagnosis will seldom apply. Bradycardia, with or without heart block, will explain some instances of enlargement of the cardiac silhouette found on radiological examination. An unusual condition like amyloidosis of the heart has been the cause of moderate enlargement in rare cases. Enlargement of the heart from glycogenic disease is even a rarer event in adults. Whenever a single example of unexplained enlargement of the heart is seen the need to find the precise cause has not appeared so important, but when two

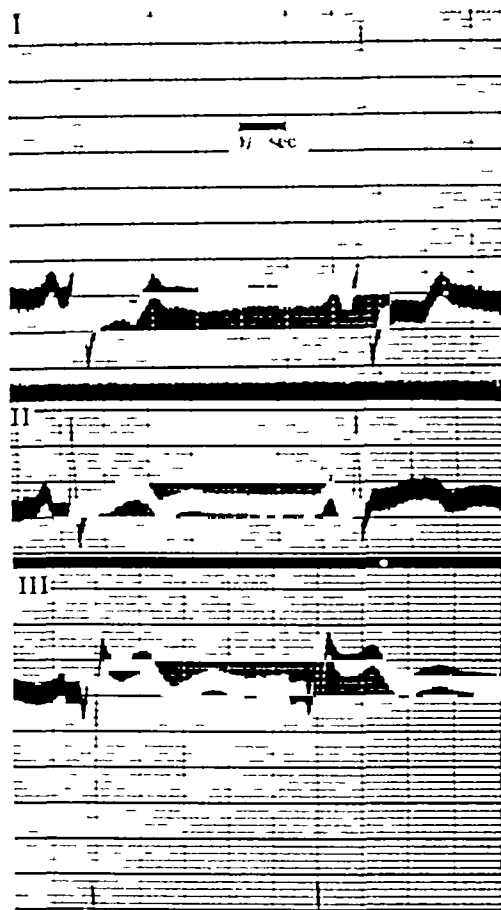


FIG 22—Electrocardiogram from Case 8 showing sinus bradycardia, deviation of the R-T segments and diphasic T waves.

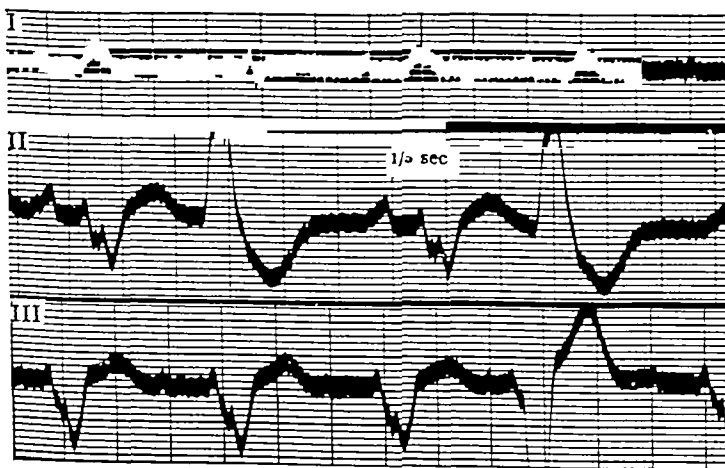


FIG 23—Electrocardiogram from Case 9 showing left bundle branch block and extrasystoles.

or more such cases appear, a search for a common aetiology becomes more vital

When the pathological findings have not been available or are equivocal in these odd instances of cardiac enlargement they have been described under such titles as 'idiopathic enlargement,' or 'unexplained enlargement of the heart in young subjects' (Whittle, 1929, Kugal and Stoloff, 1933, Levy and Rousselot, 1933, Mahon, 1939, Levy and von Glahn, 1937, Case Records of Massachusetts General Hospital, 1942, Norris and Pote, 1946, and Vuiliamy, 1947). When inflammatory changes or fibrosis of the myocardium has been an obvious finding at necropsy, they have appeared as acute non-specific myocarditis (Helwig and Wilhelmy, 1939, Candel and Wheelock, 1945), myocardial fibrosis in young men (Sellars and Phillips, 1946), and chronic fibroblastic myocarditis (Ware and Chapman, 1947). Again, the pronounced degree of cardiac enlargement has sometimes been emphasized in a title such as massive cardiac hypertrophy (Doane and Skversky, 1944), while the arrhythmia which is common in such conditions has twice furnished the heading (Major and Wahl, 1932, Addarii, Mahaim, and Winston, 1946). Few of the cases published under these several titles are instances of the condition described here

In the published cases of obscure cardiac enlargement the metabolism of glycogen has often been discussed. In Case 1 of the present series, deposits of glycogen appeared in many scattered muscle fibres in the left ventricle and the right auricle, and in the vastus externus muscle. Russell (1948) sought to control this finding from the examination of 11 cases at necropsy which took place from 4 to 34 hours after death, they showed scanty amounts of glycogen in the ordinary muscle fibres compared with that found in Case 1 which was examined 56 hours after death. Berlinger (1912) found little glycogen in 25 hearts beyond occasional traces in those cases where necropsy was delayed till five hours after death, the auricular appendage contained more glycogen than other parts. The work of Vallance-Owen (1948), however, has shown that post-mortem material does not appreciably lose its glycogen content up to 50 hours before fixation if kept in a cold chamber, this has corrected the customary belief that when glycogen is found in old post-mortem tissue, more would have been found had fixation of the tissue been carried out immediately after death. The small amount of glycogen found in the liver in Case 1 is without significance for Popper and Wozasak (1930) found glycogen in cases of heart failure. No glycogen was found in the kidney, spleen, or central nervous system in

Case 1. The patients described in this paper are not examples of glycogenic or von Gierke's disease (1929), a condition found in infants where glycogen accumulating in the liver, and rarely in the kidneys and the heart, causes the viscus to enlarge, and where biochemical tests establish a failure in glycogenolysis so that there is ketosis, hypoglycaemia, with absence of the normal rise in the blood sugar after adrenaline, and an abnormal blood sugar curve after glucose, together with a raised blood glycogen and blood cholesterol (Ellis and Payne, 1936). Gardner and Simpson (1938) found 40 reported cases of glycogenic disease, but in none of them had death taken place suddenly or required a medico-legal examination. They recorded the first example of this, a boy aged 11 years. The age of this patient was also exceptional because in the ten previously recorded cases of glycogenic disease in which the presence of excessive glycogen had been demonstrated in the heart muscle, either by Best's stain or by chemical analysis, the ages ranged from 5 weeks to 8 months. Mason and Anderson (1941) have recommended that the term von Gierke's disease should be confined to cases in which there is failure of glycogenolysis. I agree with this view and would add a second criterion, namely, that the designation should be applied to the heart only when it has enlarged from accumulation of glycogen within it. If these rules are applied it is likely that the diagnosis needs to be considered in infants and only rarely in older children or adults.

Of greater significance is the similarity of the signs met with in the present series to those found in Friedreich disease. The familial and hereditary nature of the illness in 3 out of 9 cases is comparable with a series of patients with Friedreich disease where 18 of 38 were the only members of their family to be affected. The heart is commonly affected in Friedreich disease for 12 out of 38 patients showed prominent electrocardiographic changes (Evans and Wright, 1942), such irregularities in the cardiogram told of an interruption of the conducting tissue with complete and bundle branch block, or of involvement of the myocardium producing inversion of the T waves reminiscent of cardiac infarction. Because of the lesser degree of myocardial fibrosis in Friedreich disease, the remarkable widening of the QRS complexes in some of the cases described in this paper, is not found. The size of the heart is not as great in Friedreich disease, but to this finding there are exceptions especially when heart block is present. On pathological grounds too the similarity of Friedreich disease to the condition dealt with here is arresting. Russell (1946), reporting specially on the heart in four cases of Friedreich

disease, found a piece-meal destruction of muscle fibres with fibrosis and hypertrophy of the surviving fibres, and remarkably little cellular inflammatory infiltration, there was no glycogen in one heart, but it was not sought specially in the other three. Naturally, the relation of this condition to Friedreich disease would be more definitely established if instances of each were met with in one family, but such a coincidence has not so far come to my notice.

SUMMARY

There is described in this paper a distinct syndrome having a definite clinical, cardiographic, and pathological pattern.

Clinically it is characterized by light symptoms at the start, and is often found fortuitously in a young adult during routine examination preliminary to admission to military service or civilian occupation. Ultimately, palpitation, momentary giddiness, and frank Stokes-Adams attacks may develop, and death may come suddenly during such episodes, or as the result of heart failure precipitated by the onset of paroxysmal tachycardia.

On examination the pulse is usually irregular from extrasystoles, paroxysmal tachycardia, auricular fibrillation, or heart block. There is great enlargement of the heart, and the blood pressure is normal. The heart sounds are usually clear, and there is either splitting of the second sound, or triple heart rhythm from the addition of the third heart sound. There is no enlargement of the viscera, and serological tests and the blood chemistry are normal.

The *electrocardiogram* shows extrasystoles, paroxysmal tachycardia, auricular fibrillation, or heart block, according to the kind of arrhythmia prevailing at the time, the QRS complexes are usually exceptionally wide, depending on the extent of the fibrosis and the size of the heart, and the T waves are inverted.

On *cardioscopy* there is enlargement of the heart, and as a rule the cardiomegaly is considerable.

The *prognosis* depends on the extent of the fibrosis and the associated cardiac enlargement. Thus, it is poor in young subjects with great enlargement of the heart, but in older subjects with moderate cardiac enlargement the outlook can be favourable although recurrent Stokes-Adams attacks are a handicap if frequent.

Pathologically the condition shows fibrosis of the myocardium is usually conspicuous, this is associated with hypertrophy of the remaining muscle fibres producing great cardiac enlargement. Intracardiac thrombosis initiating embolism is an

expected complication. Although glycogen may be present and even in slight excess of the normal, the syndrome described here should be regarded as a separate entity from glycogenic or von Gierke's disease—is usually confined to young children or infants—where a viscus becomes distended by the large accumulation of glycogen within it, and where laboratory tests during life show faulty glycogenolysis. Neither does the syndrome include those cases of hypertrophy of muscle fibres in the absence of myocardial fibrosis.

The *etiology* of the condition, although obscure, probably rests with an unknown factor which in Friedreich disease involves the central nervous system alone or along with the heart, and in the condition described here affects the heart exclusively, causing myocardial fibrosis. Like Friedreich disease too the condition may be familial and hereditary, or it may arise sporadically and *de novo*.

Having regard to the specificity of the condition and its chief characteristics I propose to name it *Familial Cardiomegaly*.

APPENDIX

Since this paper was written the mother of Case 8 has been admitted to hospital. She is 42 years of age and for two months has experienced short attacks of paroxysmal tachycardia. Once she lost consciousness for six minutes. Her pulse is regular and the blood pressure normal. The apex beat is in the left anterior axillary line. There are no murmurs. A triple heart rhythm from addition of the fourth heart sound is caused by delayed A-V conduction and there is splitting of the second sound in the mitral area from bundle branch block, these findings have been confirmed by the phonocardiograph. The electrocardiogram shows a prolonged P-R period and bundle branch block. On cardioscopy there is considerable generalized enlargement of the heart and much pulmonary congestion. She is, therefore, another example of familial cardiomegaly, her son, Case 8, having died suddenly at the age of 16 from the same condition. The addition of this patient to Cases 1, 2, 3, and 8 supplies five instances of the disease where a family history of the complaint was present.

I wish to thank Professor Dorothy Russell, not only for reporting on the pathological findings in Case 1, but also for her helpful discussion of the significance of these findings.

Sir John Parkinson, Physician to the Cardiac Department, has given me advice on the writing of this paper. Dr Maxwell Chance referred Case 1 to me and in this way enabled me to examine a brother (Case 2) and his mother (Case 3). Dr Francis Camps supplied me with the details of necropsy in Case 8.

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THE EFFECT OF DIGITALIS ON THE VENOUS PRESSURE

BY

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The action of digitalis on the circulation in man is not yet clearly understood. There can be no doubt that it benefits most patients with congestive heart failure, but beyond this there is no certainty.

McKenzie (1905) believed that its value was greatest in cases of congestive heart failure with auricular fibrillation and could then be attributed to slowing of the ventricular rate. Lewis (1937) agreed maintaining that improvement was infrequent in patients with normal rhythm, because slowing of the heart rate was often inconspicuous. Dock and Tainter (1930) and Katz *et al* (1938) suggested that digitalis might act primarily by constricting the hepatic vein, a throttle mechanism that was demonstrated in anaesthetized dogs, they claimed that the venous pressure was lowered by means of a bloodless venesection, blood being dammed back in the liver and portal system. Such a theory harmonized with other findings, e.g. digitalis reduced the cardiac output of normal dogs (Harrison and Leonard, 1926) and decreased the size of the heart in normal human beings (Stewart *et al*, 1938). In 1940, however, one of us was able to show that digitalis lowered the venous pressure in 90 per cent of cases of heart failure with normal rhythm, and that this was due neither to slowing of the heart rate nor to any hepatic vein throttle mechanism, for the venous pressure fell as sharply when cardiac slowing was prevented, and the liver and spleen shrank simultaneously (Wood, 1940). More recently, McMichael and Sharpey-Schafer (1944) showed that mechanical lowering of the right auricular pressure by means of cuffs on the thighs produced effects on the cardiac output in man similar to those resulting from digitalis: in cases of congestive heart failure the right auricular pressure fell and the cardiac output rose, in normal subjects the right auricular pressure fell and the cardiac output fell. They suggested that digitalis might have a primary action in lower-

ing venous pressure to which the other effects were subsidiary. The authors admitted that the venous pressure was lowered but slightly in normal subjects, and conspicuously only when the initial level was high, but they attributed this to a logarithmic effect.

The object of the present investigation was to discover what action digitalis might have on the venous pressure when it was elevated from causes other than congestive heart failure.

METHOD USED

A consecutive series of twelve cases, in which the jugular venous pressure was raised clinically without any real evidence of congestive heart failure, was studied. The nature of the material is shown in Table I. The raised venous pressure was attributed to a hyperkinetic circulatory state in the cases of anaemia and thyrotoxicosis, and to an increased blood volume in the cases of acute nephritis and artificial hydræmia. Hydræmia was induced by means of sodium chloride 10 g, water 10-12 pints, and D O C A (desoxy-cortico-sterone acetate) 25-50 mg daily for 7 to 14 days.

All observations were made with the subject lying more or less horizontal, the head being supported on one or two pillows. The antecubital venous pressure was measured directly as described in a previous paper (Wood, 1940). The right auricular pressure was measured by means of a No. 8, 9, or 10 nylon cardiac catheter and a saline manometer, as described by McMichael and Sharpey-Schafer (1944), only mean pressures can be recorded by this method. The cardiac output was estimated by means of Fick's formula, the arteriovenous oxygen difference being obtained by analysing arterial and right auricular blood samples in a modified Haldane blood gas apparatus, and the oxygen consumption

TABLE I

Case	Condition	Right ventricular pressure, cm saline above sternal angle at 5-10°	Oxygen consumption, ml a minute	Oxygen capacity, ml a litre	Arterio-venous oxygen difference, ml a litre	Right auricular pressure (or antecubital venous pressure *) cm saline above sternal angle at 5-10°		Cardiac output, litres/minute		Blood pressure		Pulse rate	
						Before dig	After dig	Before dig	After dig	Before dig	After dig	Before dig	After dig
1	Pernicious anemia	—	—	—	28.6-37.6	8.5*	8.5*	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	Pernicious anemia	24	382	48	34-32	1.5	1.0	10.5	10.0	132/60	140/60	112	108
3	Pernicious anemia	13.5	262	88.5	—	-4.5	-4.5	7.4	8.2	120/66	128/66	94	90
4	Thyrototoxicosis and hypochromic anemia	37	380	115	31-39	5.5	5.5	—	—	205/100	205/100	130	102
5	Thyrototoxicosis and aortic incompetence	—	—	—	—	—	—	12.6	9.0	—	—	—	—
6	Acute nephritis	20	257	169	46.5-51.5	-0.5	±0	9.7	—	120/40	—	90	58
7	Acute episode in chronic nephritis	15	—	—	59-61	7.5	7.0	5.6	5.6	138/78	165/80	65	—
8	? Acute nephritis	11	186	169	45-42.5	2.5	2.5	—	—	175/115	210/125	70	70
9	Artificial hydraemia	—	—	—	—	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.4	130/80	155/85	72	48
10	Artificial hydraemia	14	208	161	105-115	16.0*	16.0*	—	—	—	—	—	—
11	Artificial hydraemia	—	260	Assumed normal	41-40	-2.0	-0.5	1.95	1.8	100/60	110/64	84	76-80
12	Chronic constrictive pericarditis	10.5	286	Assumed normal	48-53	-1.0	-2.0	6.4	6.5	160/100	170/100	96	96
						4.5	4.5	5.6	5.5	115/70	125/85	80	68-76

by means of a Benedict-Roth spirometer. In some cases the arterial blood was assumed to be 95 per cent saturated with oxygen. The oxygen capacity was either estimated directly by the ferricyanide method or calculated from the haemoglobin value, results approximating closely when both methods were employed. The catheter was passed without X-ray control to make certain the tip was in the right auricle, the right ventricle was always entered, and the catheter was then withdrawn slowly until the pressure suddenly fell and conspicuous pulsation ceased.

RESULTS

Congestive Heart Failure In four controls with clinical congestive heart failure, mostly hypertensives, the venous or right auricular pressure fell sharply and considerably within half an hour of giving 1.5 mg of digoxin intravenously, whether initial readings were high or relatively low (Fig 1). At the same time the cardiac output rose, the pulse usually slowed, and the blood pressure rose (Fig 2). These cases illustrated the well-known response of heart failure to digitalis and proved that the

digoxin was potent and that the dose of 1.5 mg was sufficient.

Anæmia There were three cases of severe pernicious anæmia in all the jugular venous pressures were raised as judged clinically. The cardiac output was 10–14 litres a minute in one of them, 7 litres a minute in another, and was not measured in the third. Intravenous digoxin had no effect on the venous or right auricular pressures and did not alter the cardiac output, the blood pressure, however, rose (Fig 3).

Thyrotoxicosis There were two cases of thyrotoxicosis in which the jugular venous pressures were raised as judged clinically. One was complicated by moderate hypochromic anæmia, the other by atherosclerotic aortic incompetence. The cardiac output was 12 litres a minute in the first, 9.6 in the second. Intravenous digoxin had no effect on the right auricular pressure in either, the cardiac output fell appreciably in one of them, but this could be attributed to slowing of the pulse rate (Fig 4).

Acute Nephritis There was one case of classical acute nephritis, one of chronic nephritis with an acute flare-up, and one in which the diagnosis was

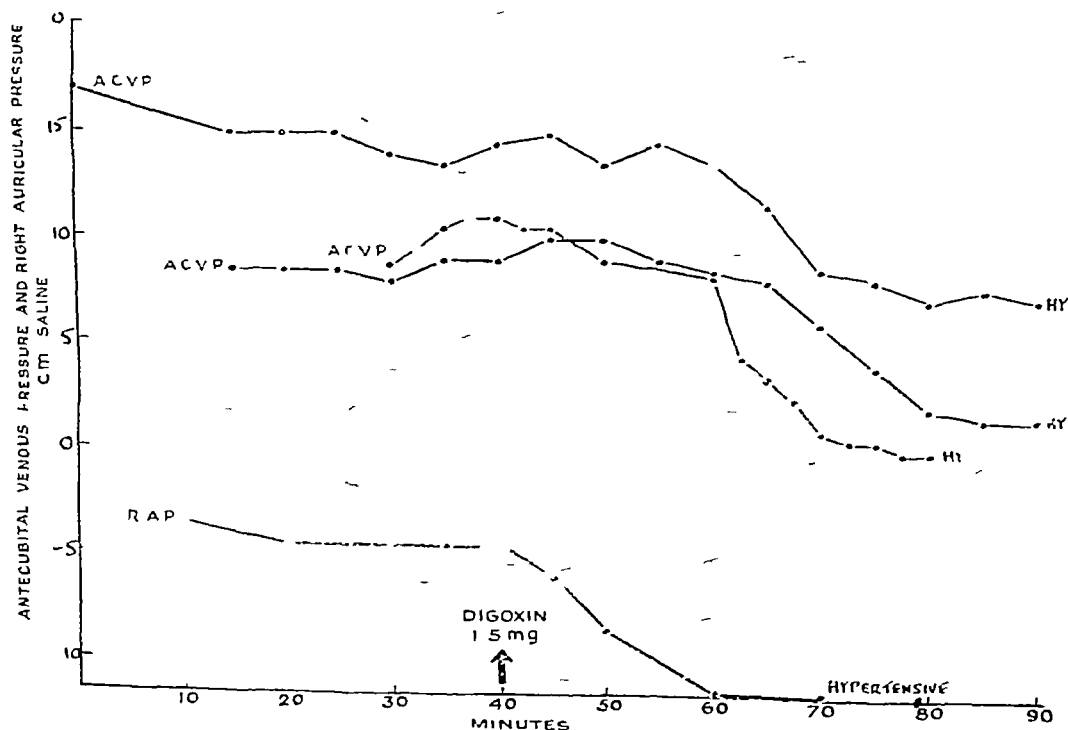


FIG 1—Congestive heart failure. The effect of intravenous digoxin on the venous or right auricular pressure in four cases of congestive heart failure with normal rhythm.

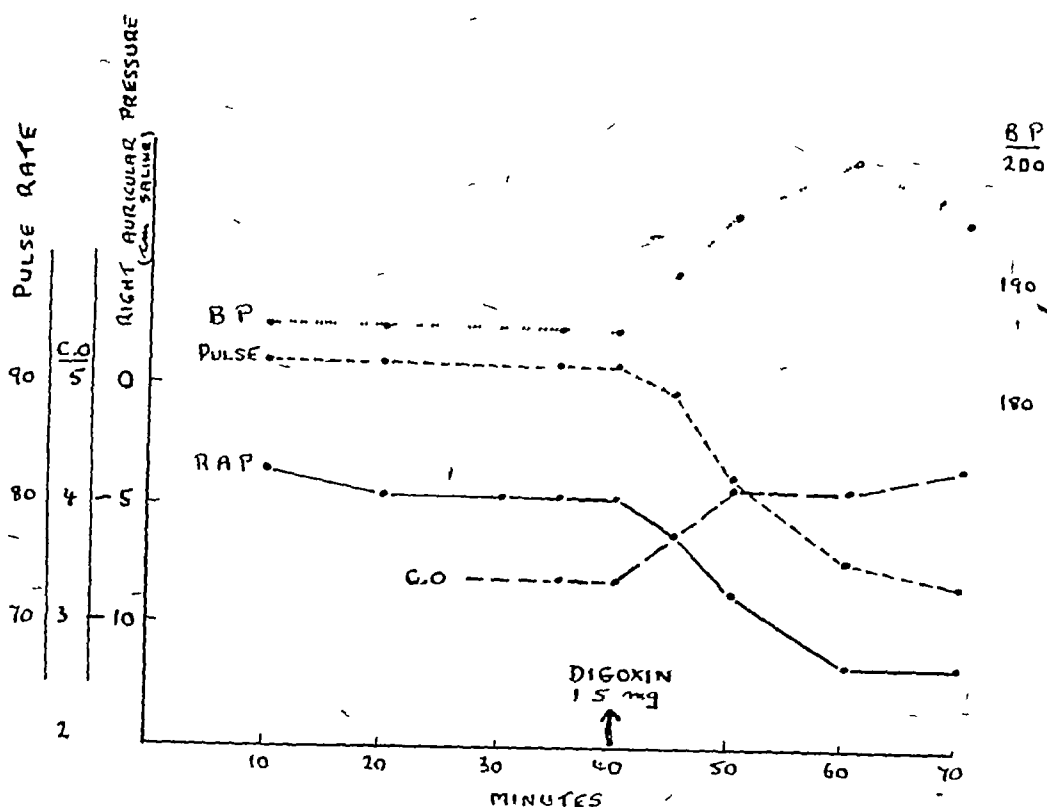


FIG 2—Hypertensive heart failure. The effects of intravenous digoxin on the blood pressure, pulse rate, right auricular pressure, and cardiac output in a case of hypertensive heart failure. Oxygen capacity and haemoglobin assumed normal. Oxygen consumption assumed 300 ml/min. A-V difference 87–68 ml/litre. Right ventricular pressure +26 cm saline. After test, low sodium and mersalyl for 14 days.

uncertain, this was a case in which transient oedema suddenly developed a fortnight or so after an acute upper respiratory tract infection, but the blood pressure, urine, and measured renal function remained normal. All three had a raised jugular venous pressure.

Intravenous digoxin (1.5 mg) did not influence the right auricular pressure or cardiac output in any of them, but the blood pressure rose as usual, and the pulse rate tended to fall (Fig 5).

Artificial Hydræmia Considerable increase in body weight, generalized oedema, and a raised jugular venous pressure were produced in three cases by means of salt, water, and desoxy-corticosterone. Intravenous digoxin (1.5 mg) did not effect the right auricular pressure or the cardiac output in two of them, nor the venous pressure in the third (which was not catheterized). The blood

pressure rose and the pulse rate fell slightly in the case illustrated (Fig 6, see p 90).

Chronic Constrictive Pericarditis Only one case of Pick's disease was investigated, and the opportunity to catheterize a case of pericardial effusion did not arise. Intravenous digoxin (1.5 mg) caused a rise in blood pressure and a fall in pulse rate, but had no influence on the right auricular pressure. The cardiac output was not measured when the pulse reached its lowest level, but was not altered 10 and 40 minutes after the injection when the pulse rate was still unchanged or had practically regained its former level respectively (Fig 7, see p 91).

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Digoxin thus had no effect on the right auricular pressure in these twelve cases (Fig 8). The blood

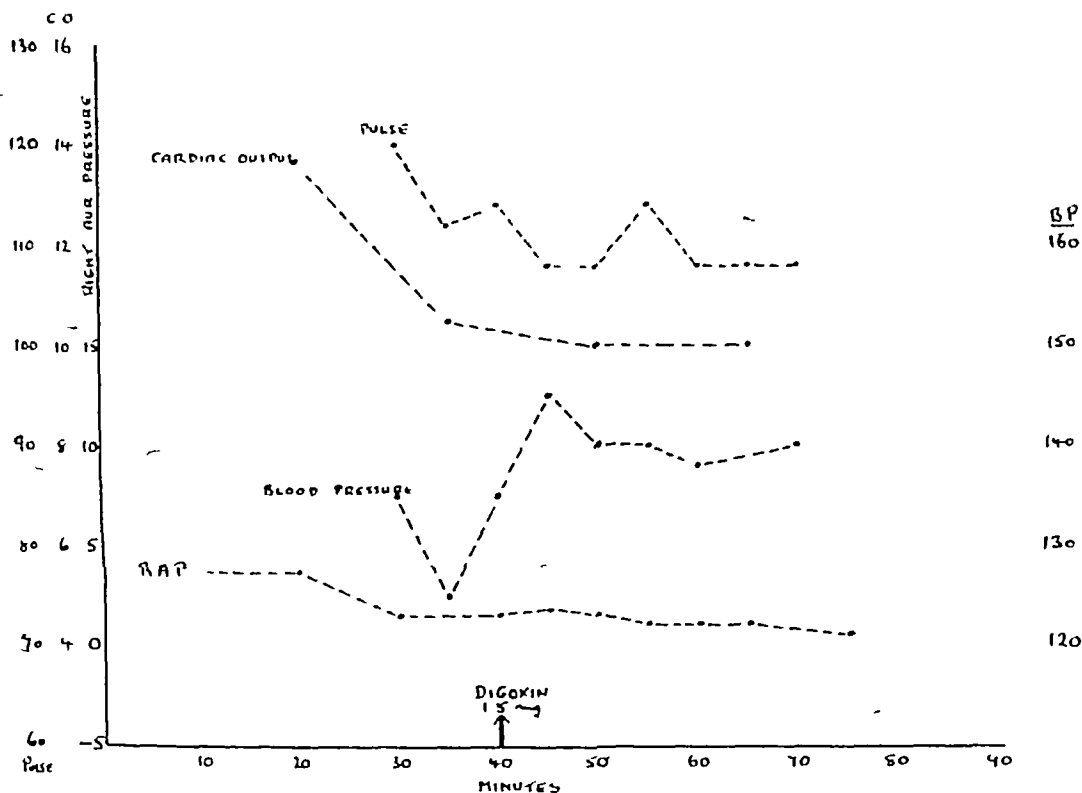


FIG 3—Pernicious anæmia. The effect of intravenous digoxin in a case of pernicious anæmia. The cardiac output has fallen with the pulse rate, but there is no effect on the right auricular pressure. Oxygen capacity 4.8 vol per cent. Hæmoglobin 3.6 g per 100 ml (21 per cent Sahli). Early oxygen consumption 390, late oxygen consumption 374 R.V.P. 24 cm saline A-V difference 28.6–37.6 ml/litre.

pressure usually rose, and the pulse rate tended to fall, the cardiac output also fell if the pulse rate diminished sufficiently.

The cases were selected at random and represented any condition that was encountered by the authors during 1947 and 1948 in which a raised jugular venous pressure could be attributed to causes other than congestive heart failure, moreover, they were consecutive, and no such cases have been excluded.

Absence of congestive heart failure was confirmed by the behaviour of the cardiac output and by the arteriovenous oxygen difference. The former was high or normal, except in one (Case 10) complicated by nausea and vomiting, it fell with rest and slowing of the pulse, and was certainly capable of being raised considerably in some cases, if not in all. The latter was normal or less than normal, and was never increased (except in Case 10). In congestive heart failure proper the cardiac output is low, or if it is normal or raised it is not as high as it should be,

in other words the circulation is incapable of meeting the demands of the body, the most consistent finding being an increased arteriovenous oxygen difference (Stead, Warren, and Brannon, 1948).

If digitalis had a primary action in lowering venous pressure it is difficult to believe that it would only influence the right auricular pressure in cases of congestive heart failure. The dose used, 1.5 mg of digoxin intravenously, was the same as that employed by McMichael and Sharpey-Schafer (1944), was sufficient to raise the blood pressure and slow the pulse rate in most cases, and had the usual effect in heart failure. Nevertheless, it is admitted that a larger dose might possibly be required in the type of cases investigated in this paper.

If digitalis does not have a primary action in lowering venous pressure, its apparent ill effect in cases of chronic pulmonary heart failure secondary to emphysema (Howarth, McMichael, and Sharpey-Schafer, 1948) should be reviewed.

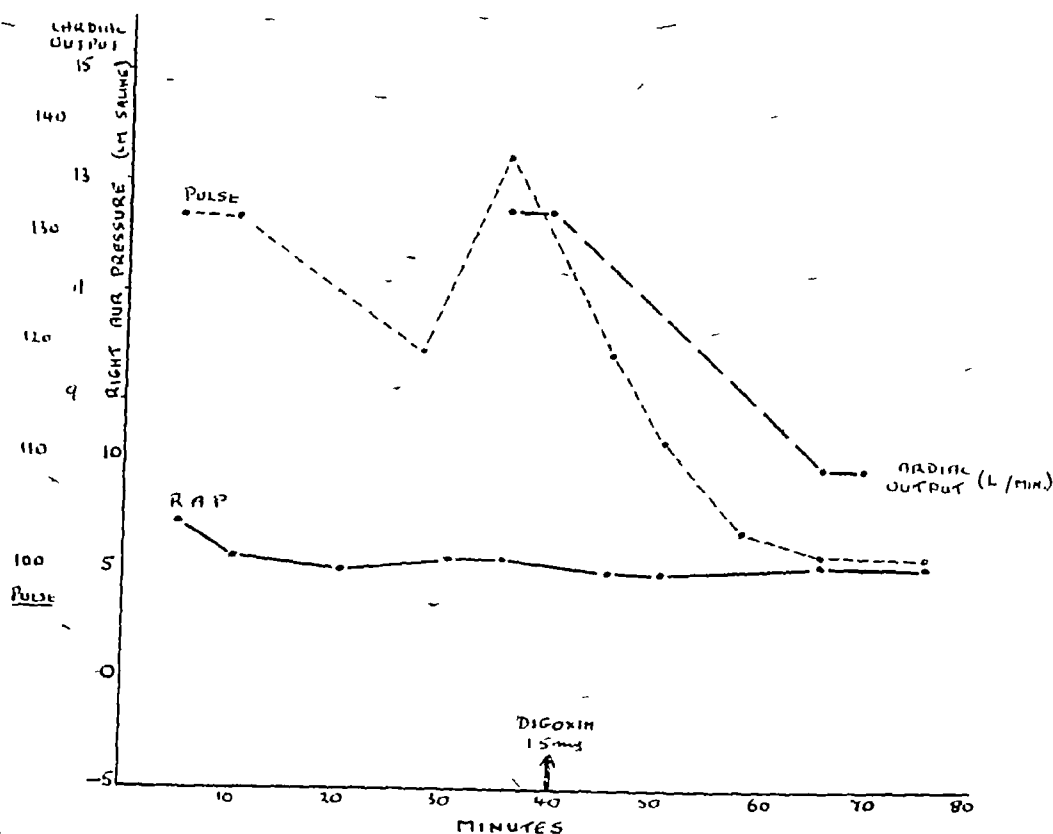


FIG 4—Thyrotoxicosis and anaemia. The effect of intravenous digoxin in a case of thyrotoxicosis and anaemia. The fall in cardiac output parallels the fall in pulse rate, but there is no change in the right auricular pressure. B.P. 205/100/50 throughout. Oxygen capacity 11.5 vol per cent. Haemoglobin 8.6 g. per 100 ml. Oxygen consumption 380 ml/min. R.V.P. 37 cm saline. A-V difference 31–39 ml/litre.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The effect of digoxin on the venous pressure or right auricular pressure was investigated in four cases of classical congestive heart failure with normal rhythm and in twelve cases in which the venous pressure was raised for other reasons. These cases included anaemia, thyrotoxicosis, acute nephritis, artificial hydræmia, and chronic constrictive pericarditis. The dose of digoxin was 1.5 mg intravenously in all instances.

In the four examples of congestive heart failure the venous pressure or right auricular pressure fell conspicuously within 30 minutes, and the cardiac output, when measured, rose.

In the twelve patients without congestive heart failure the right auricular pressure did not alter appreciably within 40 minutes. The cardiac output, when measured, was either unchanged or fell with the pulse rate.

A conspicuous pressor effect was demonstrated in most cases.

It is concluded that intravenous digoxin, in doses of 1.5 mg intravenously, does not primarily lower the venous pressure, at least in the type of case described.

As a corollary, it is suggested that the effect of digoxin on the venous pressure in cases of congestive heart failure may yet depend upon its direct action on the heart, as originally believed.

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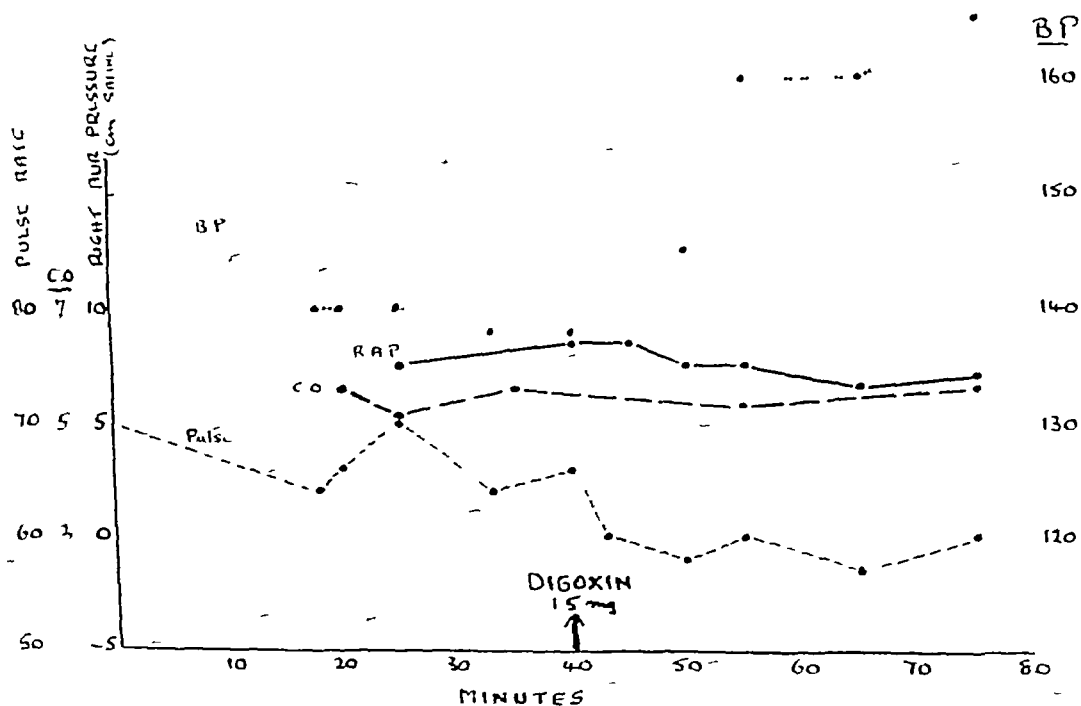


FIG 5—Acute nephritis The effect of intravenous digoxin in a case of acute nephritis There is no significant change in cardiac output or right auricular pressure, but there is a conspicuous rise of blood pressure Oxygen capacity 16.9 vol per cent Haemoglobin 12.6 g per 100 ml Oxygen consumption 257 ml/min R V P 20 cm saline A-V difference 46.5–51.5 ml/litre

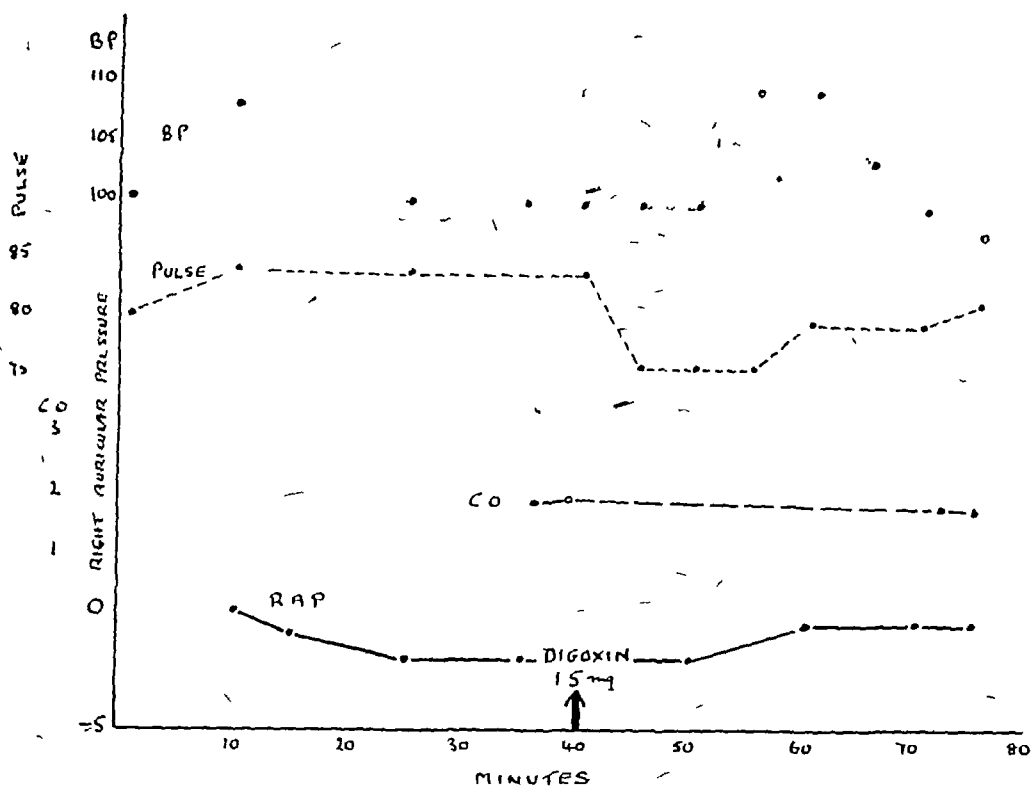


FIG 6—Induced hydræmia The effect of intravenous digoxin in a case of induced hydræmia. There is no change in the right auricular pressure. The usual pressor and slowing effects may be noted. Basal oxygen uptake 208 ml/min. Oxygen capacity 161 ml/litre. Hæmoglobin 12 g per 100 ml. R.V.P. 14 cm saline. P.A.P. 24 cm saline. A-V difference 105–115 ml/litre. Fourteen days preparation. NaCl 10 g daily. Water 10–12 pints. DOCA 25–50 mg. Gained 11 lb. Œdema + J.V.P. +2–3 at 35°. Some nausea and vomiting.

Fig 7 and 8 See next page

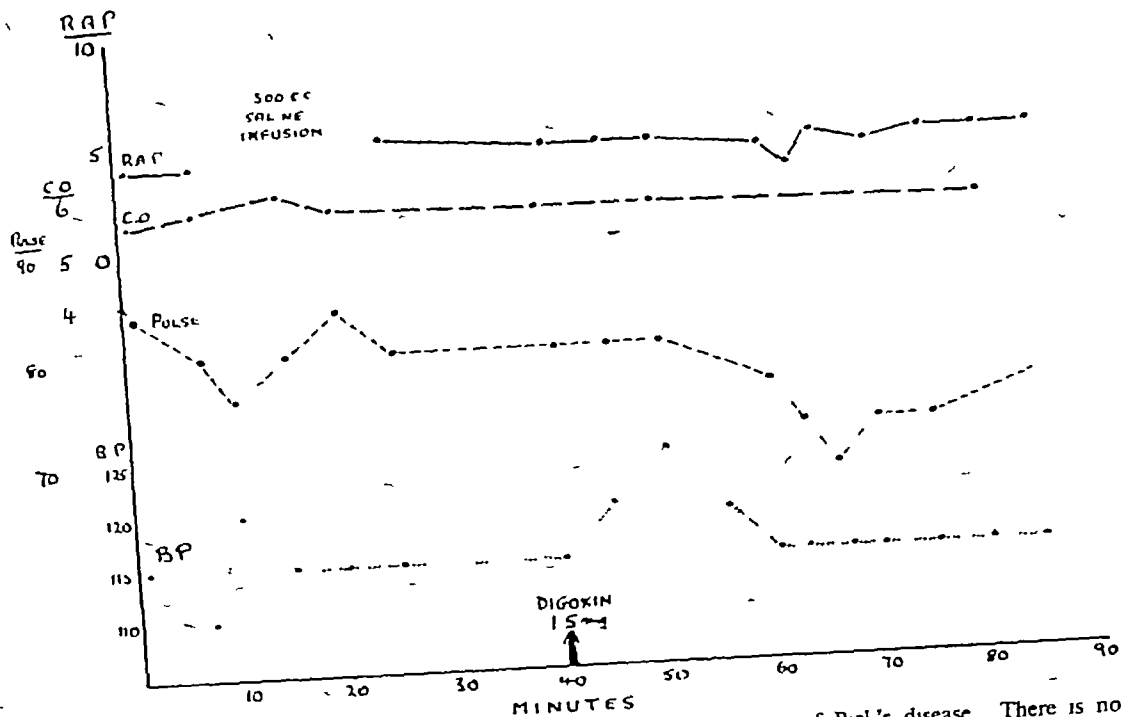


FIG 7—Pick's disease The effect of intravenous digoxin in a case of Pick's disease. There is no change in the right auricular pressure. Oxygen consumption 286 ml/min RVP 10.5 cm saline. Oxygen capacity assumed 20 vol per cent. A-V difference 48-54 ml/litre.

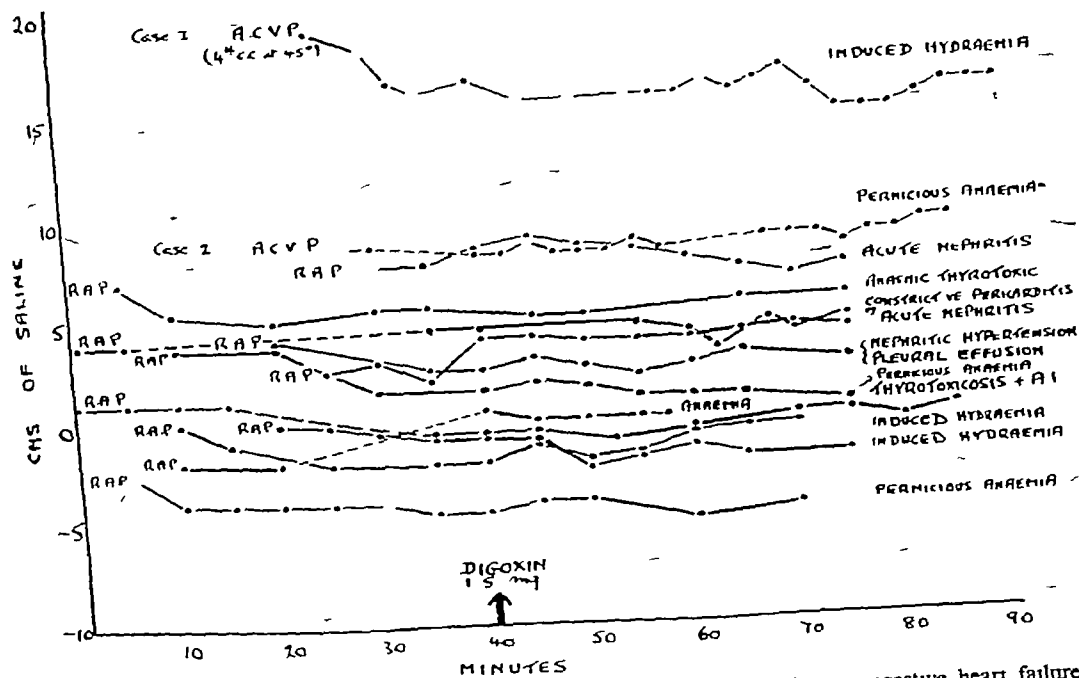


FIG 8—Absence of effect of digoxin on the venous pressure in cases without congestive heart failure. Superimposed charts illustrating the absence of appreciable change in the right auricular pressure as a result of digoxin in 12 cases characterized by a rise in venous pressure without heart failure.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE BRITISH CARDIAC SOCIETY

A special AUTUMN MEETING of the BRITISH CARDIAC SOCIETY was held at the Royal Society of Medicine, London on October 29, 1948. Chairman JOHN HAY. The Chairman took the chair at 9.30 a.m., 89 members and 38 visitors were present.

CHEST LEADS

TERENCE EAST moved the adoption of the report that had been prepared by Curtis Bain, I. G. W. Hill, Paul Wood and himself at the request of the Council (see page 103).

The following members then took part in the discussion.

WILLIAM EVANS. Since the introduction into this country of unipolar chest leads they had been accepted as ideal on theoretical grounds. Doubtless in time things would sort themselves out, but in the meantime we must decide what helped us most when a patient with cardiac pain came to us for diagnosis. Leatham had made a valuable contribution to this subject and we could see more clearly what we should do in the future. The following points which had been the main outcome of this study and of the application of the three chest leads, CR, CF, and V, in actual practice.

(1) Since the T wave was so often inverted in CF leads in health, this lead should be discarded. (2) CR1 depicted the P waves better than did V1, and for this reason it was a better lead to use in arrhythmia. (3) Since the R wave was better portrayed in CR1 than in V1, it proved a better lead for the diagnosis of septal infarction. (4) Since the T wave was so often inverted in V1 in healthy adults, CR1 was a better lead to use in the diagnosis of right heart preponderance, for the T wave was seldom inverted in this lead in healthy adults. (5) Again, since the T wave in V leads was usually small at the chest stations 6 and 7, sometimes becoming flat or inverted in health, the CR lead was superior in that the T wave in CR7 was always upright in health.

For these reasons anyone who customarily used CR leads need not change to unipolar chest leads in the hope that they would gain additional information in clinical diagnosis, for they would be disappointed.

PAUL WOOD. A discussion on which chest leads are the best is not profitable, because they are all

facets of the same thing: thus conclusions drawn after comparing CR, CF, and V leads are obvious if unipolar limb leads have been taken with any chest lead. The time had surely come to adopt unipolar leads in general.

The question of how best to mount the records might be trivial, but it seemed to be a problem that needed solution. The obvious way was to mount the chest leads around a diagrammatic section of the heart in the positions from which they were actually taken, and to set Einthoven's triangle about them, the unipolar limb leads appearing at the apices and the standard leads along the sides. This, however, was admittedly impracticable. The next step was to make a more schematic diagram of the heart in the centre of the triangle, so that the chest leads appeared in a horizontal straight line. This was also too laborious. The diagram of the heart could be omitted with advantage, the leads being placed as before with reference to Einthoven's triangle. Finally, the triangle could be dropped, and lead VF brought into line between leads II and III. The result was neat, and the individual leads could be easily picked out according to their geographical relationship to an imaginary Einthoven's triangle. Figures illustrating these suggestions were shown.

K. D. WILKINSON. Being old, I am not yet convinced that multiple electrocardiographic leads offer us greater security in the diagnosis of coronary occlusion. These leads, if taken, should be recorded in the simplest possible form, and it seems to me that we shall only reach a definite conclusion when, by combination, we have records of a large number of cases complete with electrocardiograms and the findings of autopsies. In the meantime, I want to stress the importance of taking a good history in every case.

MORGAN JONES. It is not claimed that the "unipolar" limb leads are precisely unipolar, so it is perhaps best to call them "extremity potentials". Goldberger's "augmented unipolar" limb leads have two advantages over the original Wilson leads: (a) the lead connections necessitate only one electrode on each limb, and (b) the potential changes are conveniently large. They omit the Wilson resistances, however, and Bryant and Johnston have

shown that this omission introduces significant error in a small percentage of cases. So, although Wilson adopted the Goldberger technique, he preferred to retain the resistances and this appears to be the most acceptable method for general use.

In recording either the præcordial or the extremity potentials, it is not correct to say that the resistances are unnecessary if the skin resistance is low, the purpose of the resistances is to prevent an appreciable flow of current when there is a considerable potential difference between points coupled together—they are therefore *more* necessary if skin resistance is very low. In practice, the resistances are naturally more advisable in recording extremity than præcordial potentials. The Wilson resistances have the same effect as a high skin resistance in increasing the tendency to pick up alternating current. To reduce interference when recording the classical limb leads, it has always been the custom to earth the "spare" limb through the instrument but, when either the central terminal or the Goldberger technique is used, all three limbs are required, so it is impossible to earth any of them. Therefore, to reduce interference, all switches designed for recording "unipolar" leads should incorporate a connection to the *right* leg which is constantly earthed.

The importance of using a considerable number of

præcordial leads has been underestimated. These leads reflect principally the potential changes of a small part of the ventricular muscle adjacent to the electrode, so records from three or less positions may fail to show a lesion confined to part of the anterior ventricular wall. This is especially important in the recognition of anterior infarction, for only one of the six usual præcordial leads may reveal *diagnostic* abnormalities. In addition, multiple præcordial leads give valuable information concerning the extent of the infarct. Further, as the electrode is moved across the præcordium, the progressive changes in the ventricular complex form a regular pattern in normal subjects, and disturbances of this pattern from disease cannot always be recognized when the form of the complex is known only at two or three points. Finally, it cannot be over-emphasized that the right præcordial potentials rarely influence the extremity potentials, so that antero-septal infarction is usually associated with a normal limb lead electrocardiogram.

After further discussion the Society then approved the publication of the Report as an expression of the present views of the majority of its members [The Report is published on page 103 of this number]

SHORT COMMUNICATIONS

A CLINICAL COMPARISON OF CR, CF, AND V LEADS IN HEALTH AND DISEASE

BY AUBREY LEATHAM

(Introduced by WILLIAM EVANS)

On 500 patients, including 100 controls, leads CR, CF, and V 1-7, standard limb leads and unipolar limb leads have been taken. Analysis of the chest leads on a purely practical basis has led to four main conclusions.

Since the CF electrocardiogram so often appears abnormal in health it is best to forego it in routine practice.

In ventricular preponderance, bundle branch block, posterior cardiac infarction, and in most cases of anterior infarction, a comparison of the CR and V electrocardiograms showed that there were

no significant differences between the QRS complexes and T waves.

In 30 patients with anterior or antero-lateral cardiac infarction showing slight cardiographic changes, the abnormalities were seen more plainly in the V leads, although in only one were they absent from the CR leads.

On the other hand, the T inversion commonly found in V1 in health and occasionally in V7 might be considered a disadvantage. In practice, therefore, neither electrocardiogram has shown much superiority over the other.

A COMPARISON OF STANDARD LEADS, UNIPOLAR LIMB LEADS, AND PRÆCORDIAL LEADS

BY D. R. CAMERON

(Introduced by J. H. WRIGHT)

Standard limb leads, unipolar limb leads (Wilson and Goldberger techniques) and præcordial leads 1-6 of CR, CL, CF, and V (Goldberger) types were taken in 30 normal and 30 abnormal subjects.

The site of the remote electrode may have considerable effect on the form of the præcordial cardiogram. Any component—P, QRS, S-T or T—may be affected.

In the normal case, differences are usually most obvious in the extreme right (1 and 2) or left (5 and 6) positions, where the amplitude of the deflections is small and therefore more liable to noticeable distortion. They are also more obvious in P and T because (a) deflections are smaller, and (b) duration is longer than in QRS.

In certain abnormal cases, the differences may be most obvious in the transitional zone (3 and 4).

Prediction of the differences in CR, CL, and CF is possible from a study of any one of them in conjunction with the S limb leads (of Wolfirth and Wood).

The V leads always occupy an intermediate position between the extremes of the other præcordial

leads, i.e. distortion is reduced to a *minimum*. Consideration of the unipolar limb and præcordial leads renders possible a fairly accurate prediction of the CR, CL, and CF leads. In the normal cases the variations depend mainly on the position of the heart. In the abnormal cases they depend also on the nature and site of the lesion.

Preliminary study (6 cases) indicated no significant differences in V (Goldberger) and V (Wilson) præcordial leads.

The augmented Goldberger technique for unipolar limb leads seems in some cases to give larger amplitudes than could theoretically be expected, though the form of the complex is unaltered.

UNIPOLAR ELECTROCARDIOGRAMS IN CORONARY THROMBOSIS

BY ANNE C AITKENHEAD

(Introduced by J H WRIGHT)

The present contribution deals with 150 cases mostly of coronary thrombosis studied by unipolar leads over the past three years. In most early cases, serial tracings were taken every few days and cases studied at the beginning of the investigation have been recalled for check-up. The cases have been classified according to localization of infarct after the method of Wilson and the relative frequency of the different sites has been noted.

While many fit into the well recognized groups, a considerable number are atypical, e.g. a typical T III electrocardiogram in standard limb leads may be associated with a *small* R in leads over right side of præcordium and not the usual large R. The

coexistence of left ventricular hypertrophy is a complicating factor in leads over left side of præcordium but the height of R and the level of S-T help to differentiate.

Serial tracings have shown the regression of an infarct from its edges inwards, thus an antero-septal and antero-lateral infarct shows most rapid signs of healing in V6 and later V5 and also in V1 and later V2 while V3 or V4 may be the last to return to more or less normal. We have used V7 frequently and find it particularly useful in postero-lateral infarcts where it may be the only lead which overlies the infarct directly (albeit only its edge). Leads V5 and V6 are not infrequently redundant.

CARDIAC PAIN WITH RECOVERY OF THE T WAVE

BY TERENCE EAST AND S ORAM

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THE EFFECT OF POSTURE UPON NORMAL AND ABNORMAL ELECTROCARDIOGRAMS

BY A MORGAN JONES, H K HELLERSTEIN, AND HAROLD FEIL (introduced)

The effect of posture upon the standard limb leads, the extremity and præcordial potentials has been studied in 100 cases, 20 normal, 20 right, and 20 left bundle branch block, 20 with isolated right ventricular enlargement, and 20 with isolated left ventricular enlargement. Electrocardiograms were recorded in the supine, sitting, right and left lateral positions except in the cases with bundle branch

block, in which the sitting posture was not studied. In *normal subjects* the axis could be changed within wide limits in a considerable proportion of cases, sometimes over almost the whole normal range from $+90^\circ$ to 0° , but in no case did the axis fall outside normal limits in the postures studied. The axis was usually farthest to the left in the sitting posture and to the right in the left lateral position.

The changes were due to reversal of the form of the extremity potentials of the left arm and left leg, the præcordial potentials remained of the same general form, but the transitional zone rotated to the left when the axis in the standard limb leads shifted to the right. T wave changes were associated with the QRS changes.

- In *left bundle branch block* very striking changes occurred, especially on turning into the left lateral position. In this posture abnormal right axis deviation appeared in 4 cases, and the limb lead cardiograms simulated right bundle branch block, the præcordial potentials remained substantially unchanged and in all positions were characteristic of left bundle branch block. The changes were much less striking in *right bundle branch block*, the limb leads being substantially of the same form in all positions.

In *left ventricular enlargement* even more striking changes were present, again most extreme in the left lateral position. In that position abnormal right axis deviation appeared, and ST-T changes

appeared in lead III instead of in lead I, owing to reversal of the form of the extremity potentials of the left arm and left foot. The appearances in this position thus often simulated those of right ventricular enlargement, but the præcordial potentials remained characteristic of left ventricular enlargement. In cases with *right ventricular enlargement* the changes in the limb leads were very slight and did not simulate left ventricular enlargement in any position.

The striking postural changes in left ventricular enlargement and in left bundle branch block were compared with the slight changes in right ventricular enlargement and right bundle branch block. If the amount of axis change is taken as an indication of the extent of the changes in pattern, there is a statistically significant difference between the extent of the changes in left ventricular enlargement and in normal subjects on the one hand, and between normal subjects and right ventricular enlargement on the other. Possible reasons for this difference were discussed.

SUBACUTE BACTERIAL ENDOCARDITIS

By K. D. WILKINSON

The Birmingham centre has treated 63 cases and has had 12 relapses. The *Streptococcus viridans* is the infecting organism in over 90 per cent of cases. Fifty-eight per cent of all cases have been cured and are alive, many at full work as before their infection.

When the centre began we used a dosage of 0.25 mega units daily and met 4 cases with infections that could not be controlled. With a dosage of 1 mega unit daily for 28 days the results have been better. For a relapse 2 mega units daily for 6 weeks is the usual dose, but for one highly resistant *Streptococcus D* a dosage of 11.5 mega units daily for 6 weeks resulted in a cure. There have been no failures to cure the infection with the bigger doses.

The initial symptoms of a relapse may be very slight as patients are under supervision the relapses are detected early and treated efficiently and early. It is probable that the early symptoms of most cases of infective endocarditis are slight, and it seems most important to point out the early symptoms so that all cases may be investigated and brought under treatment as early as possible.

A change in health is the first thing noticed. Fever, seldom high, sweating, especially at night, malaise, lassitude, and vague pains in back or limbs which is commonly diagnosed as influenza. Some anorexia and loss of weight occur, but these symp-

toms tend to be slight and vague. Even those who have had a similar illness before tend to say "I don't feel well."

The physical signs may be almost as slight and vague. Splenic enlargement and changes in the heart murmurs are among the most definite. Major embolic manifestations are unusual but intermittent albuminuria with blood cells and casts in the urine are quite the most frequent significant sign.

There were 2 cases of hemiplegia, 1 of aphasia with no other definite nervous lesion, 2 of repeated pulmonary embolism, and 1 with glycosuria which disappeared as the infection was brought under control.

The best results are obtained in those who come under treatment early. The mouth is far the most important source of infection. In eight of this series the extraction of teeth was related to the onset of symptoms so definitely that there can be no doubt that the operation acted as a trigger, but gingival infection is at least as important as apical abscesses. The patient with the resistant *Streptococcus D* whom I have mentioned as cured by 11.5 mega units daily for 6 weeks began to respond after an extensive excision of swollen infected gingival margins.

Teeth and gingival infection can be treated while the patient is on the penicillin course, and this is

very important if relapses are to be avoided. As might be expected, the blood urea gives some indication of the severity of renal damage. Those patients with raised blood ureas do less well as a rule. Hæmoglobin estimations are important. Bramwell stated in his recent paper that the rate of hæmoglobin recovery was slow, recalling a few individual cases I doubted this, but on working out the recovery curves of all our cases I find that the observation is perfectly correct. The blood recovery rate contrasts most remarkably with the

results of iron therapy in low colour-index anæmias or liver treatment in typical Addisonian anæmia. In cases of infective endocarditis who had no hæmatinics or transfusion in the first month the average gain of hæmoglobin is 3.5 per cent, i.e. from 76 to 79 per cent. In the second month all the records tend upwards, the average gain being 8 per cent, i.e. from 79 to 87 per cent, while in the third month the rise was 7 per cent, i.e. from 87 to 94 per cent.

MITRAL STENOSIS IN LATER LIFE

BY HAROLD COOKSON

Results of observations on 36 cases with mitral stenosis ranging in age from 51 to 77 years were reported. Women outnumbered men by 3 to 1, and most of the patients were seen in private practice. A clear history of rheumatic fever or chorea was given by 13, and in a further 8 heart disease or a valve lesion had been diagnosed in early life. In 4 cases the first known attack of rheumatic fever occurred at the age of 34 or later.

All patients had lead normal active lives up to the sixth, seventh, or eighth decade, and 15 of the 21 married women had had children. When first seen 32 patients had auricular fibrillation, and 2 auricular tachycardia, and the onset of an arrhythmia seems

nearly always to coincide with the first appearance of symptoms. Hypertension was present in a high proportion.

The criteria of diagnosis were given. The X-ray appearances of the heart and great vessels, which differ in some ways from what has been regarded as the characteristic picture of mitral stenosis, were described. Prognosis, cause of death, and necropsy findings (3 cases) were dealt with. The ætiology of the valve disease was considered to be rheumatic in all cases, and the reasons for the latency of the lesion until late in life was discussed. Reasons were given for thinking that the diagnosis of mitral stenosis in later life is often missed.

AN-ARTIFICIAL CIRCULATION

By R. J. S. McDOWALL

This artificial circulation is a robust piece of apparatus which has been in use by medical students for a year. By means of it, the main mechanical features of the circulation of the blood may be shown.

The pump has the special feature that its output can be shown to depend both on its input and to a limited extent on the frequency of its stroke. It consists essentially of a piece of flattened bicycle 1-inch inner tubing 4 inches long which is compressed by a moving plate controlled by a cam. A large inlet "valve" of little resistance is provided by the closure of the inlet by a narrow plate driven by another cam on the same shaft just before the main stroke of the pump. A very robust and simple exit valve is provided by a piece of inner tubing stretched over a piece of brass tubing into the outer end of which is inserted a wider flat piece of bakelite. A visible flow indicator in the system is provided by a

bent tube inside a small Kjeldahl flask, the flow being directed against the side of the flask to avoid frothing.

The rate of the pump can be altered by changing the starting resistance of the motor driving the cam-shaft and the effects of tachycardia shown.

The "arterial" pressure taken on a mercury manometer can be altered up to 200 mm Hg by changing the filling of the heart, its rate within limits, and by varying the resistance of the system. Increased filling of the heart is produced by raising the hinged part of the system to the horizontal or by compressing the "blood depot" which is a piece of inner tube which can be rolled up. The air pressure can be adjusted in the bottle so that the changes in "heart" output become visible.

The "venous pressure" taken on a manometer (a narrow burette with a fountain-pen cap as a piston), can be shown to be affected by the amount

of circulating fluid, by the capacity of the system, which can be increased by unrolling the "blood depot," by the peripheral resistance, and by the output of the pump. If the pump is slowed or stopped, the "venous pressure" rises markedly as in cardiac disease.

A reduction of the elasticity of the system to imitate hardened arteries provided by the inverted bottle is effected by pinching the tube and is shown

to increase the pulse pressure and render the flow in the flow-meter intermittent.

A lever system from the rubber valve chamber may be added to record the rapid changes in the "arterial pressure" better than the mercury manometer.

For making original forms of the pump and the exit valve I am particularly indebted to Dr A E Schuster.

THE EFFECT OF DIGITALIS ON THE VENOUS PRESSURE

BY PAUL WOOD AND JOHN PAULETT (*introduced*)

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HEART FAILURE AND TRICUSPID INCOMPETENCE

BY W BRIGDEN AND E P SHARPEY-SCHAFER

It was shown previously that in cases of tricuspid incompetence mean right auricular pressure was higher than the mean pressure in a peripheral vein, a phenomenon that can be reproduced in a simple mechanical model. In cases with tricuspid incompetence it may be difficult to decide to what extent the high venous pressure results from incompetence or from heart failure. Manometric curves of right auricular pressure show a high systolic curve and indicate the diastolic pressure level. Continuous recording of pressure waves on rapid withdrawal of the catheter from auricle to peripheral vein show damping out of the systolic

pulsations in the peripheral vein. The presence or absence of heart failure may also be demonstrated by measuring the response of the forearm flow to changes in posture. In the normal subject the forearm vessels constrict on tipping into the upright posture, while in cases of left heart failure, with or without high right auricular pressures, constriction occurs in the supine position. Some cases of tricuspid incompetence show the same response of the forearm vessels as the normal subject to changes in posture, although systolic and mean right auricular pressures are high.

ANGIOCARDIOGRAPHY IN CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

BY MAURICE CAMPBELL AND T H HILLS (*introduced*)

The apparatus consists of a special trolley over which an X-ray tube is located at a suitable height. Just below the trolley top is a 15 by 16 inch fluorescent screen and the image produced at this plane is recorded by a large roll-film camera.

Exposures are made at the rate of one a second on a film whose width is such that the finished negatives are about 5 by 5 inches square. As many as fifty consecutive exposures could be obtained but in practice the number is normally limited to fifteen.

The opaque medium used is a 70 per cent solution of diodrast in water, and a preliminary sensitivity test is carried out.

Success depends on the intravenous injection of

from 30 to 50 ml of the dye in a maximum of 2 seconds. It is usually necessary to expose a vein in the arm and insert a wide gauge canula. A preliminary injection of 20 ml of saline demonstrates the suitability of the vein and the speed with which the injection can be made. About five seconds after the injection the patient feels a sensation of heat which reaches its maximum rapidly and fades more slowly within two minutes.

It is not practicable to carry out this investigation in small or nervous children without an anaesthetic, and this must add to the risk. The best anaesthetic is probably the combination of cyclopropane and oxygen. Oxygen should be continued till normal conscious respiration has been restored.

In Fallot's tetralogy the interpretation of the films can be considered under two headings

Firstly, the volume shunt of blood from right to left is estimated by the degree of filling of the aorta which is generally seen as early as two seconds after the injection. The presence of dye in the subclavian artery, the abdominal aorta, and the kidneys gives additional direct evidence of the proportion of dye taking this route

Secondly, the pulmonary arteries usually show some filling at about two seconds but the degree of stenosis cannot be assessed on this time basis alone. If there is much flow of dye through the lungs their general density will show a steady increase to a maximum in about eight seconds. This estimation of the changing density of the lung fields would appear to be a more valuable observation than the actual time and degree of filling of the pulmonary arteries

The first film of the series will often show some venous backflow due to a temporary rise of venous pressure. Traces of dye may be seen in the inferior vena cava and the internal jugular vein. This abnormal pressure must be taken into account when estimating any volume shunt but is not likely to persist after the first two seconds

In cases that appear to be typical instances of Fallot's tetralogy evidence of a right to left shunt has been obtained regularly. In one case thought to be Fallot's tetralogy no right to left shunt was found and post-mortem there was high grade pulmonary stenosis with a small auricular septal defect without the other features of Fallot's tetralogy. A moderate right to left shunt has sometimes been suggested in cases that were not obviously cyanotic

Our early clinical impression is that the method is perhaps less sensitive in detecting pulmonary stenosis, presumably in cases where this is not so severe. This differentiation may prove of value in estimating the degree of success following a systemic-pulmonary anastomosis or in choosing cases suitable for pulmonary valvulotomy

In addition, a high proportion of angiocardigrams show points of interest that were not suspected—a double superior vena cava, a large pulmonary artery on one side with obstruction on the other side, and a widespread venous anastomosis on the right side. In one case regarded as tricuspid atresia with non-functioning right ventricle the angiocardigram provided good supporting evidence

CIRCULATION TIMES IN CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

BY K D ALLANBY

(Introduced by MAURICE CAMPBELL)

To be published in full, *Brit Heart J*, April, 1949

APICAL DIASTOLIC MURMURS IN SEVERE ANÆMIA

BY H E S PEARSON

A murmur closely simulating that of mitral stenosis can occur occasionally in cases of severe chronic anæmia in the absence of valvular disease. Numerous references to this are found in late nineteenth century continental textbooks and articles on pernicious anæmia, and Cabot (1896) recorded 9 such murmurs in his series of 857 cases of this disease. Gunewardene (1933), dealing with hook-worm anæmia, describes 4 cases in whom a confident diagnosis of mitral stenosis was disproved either by autopsy or by the disappearance of the murmur on treatment, and Klinefelter (1942) obtained graphic records of apical presystolic murmurs in patients with sickle-cell anæmia

Three cases presenting this physical sign are described, and the apparently arbitrary appearance and fugitive nature of the murmurs are shown by means of charts. This murmur has several features

in common with the transient diastolic murmur that can occur in cases of rheumatic fever (Carey Coombs, 1924) and in discussing its possible cause certain explanations that have been put forward for the latter are admissible here for consideration

With these inclusions, the following factors have been held responsible by various authors

1 Decreased viscosity of blood (Sahli, 1895, Garb, 1944)

2 Increased speed of blood flow (White and Wood, 1923) with rapid filling of atonic left ventricle (Bland, Jones, and White, 1935)

3 "Relative mitral stenosis" (White, 1937), or combination of these (Luisada, 1948)

4 Pressure of dilated pulmonary artery on mitral orifice (Kerr, 1936)

5 Pressure of dilated right and left ventricles on mitral orifice (Weinstein and Lev, 1942)

It is felt that the facts observed in these three cases cannot be satisfactorily explained in any of the above ways, although the first factor may play a part. The suggestion is made that the apical diastolic murmur in severe anæmia is caused by incomplete opening of the mitral valve, associated, in the way to be described, with loss of passive tone in the papillary muscles.

The stream of blood, entering the ventricle axially, recoils radially and upward towards the base of the heart, thus tending to press the mitral cusps together. Closure is prevented chiefly by the lateral pressure of the entering stream but also by

the passive tension of the papillary muscles on the chordæ tendinæ. Only minor pressures are involved and failure of the papillary muscles to exert their normal light "spring-loading" action on the valve allows the cusps to lie so sharply curved towards one another that a murmur is produced in the narrowed commissure. Fatty change, when present, is commonly maximal in the papillary muscles, and may lead to stretching.

This paradoxical movement and its control by the papillary muscles can be demonstrated in the cadaveric heart by a simple experiment.

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THE GRAPHIC REGISTRATION OF BASAL DIASTOLIC MURMURS*

BY BERTRAND G WELLS

(Introduced by GEOFFREY BOURNE)

The vibrations of the diastolic murmur of aortic regurgitation are of high frequency and very low energy value. Other cardiac events, however, cause at the same location vibrations of lower frequency and many thousands times the energy. If the phonocardiogram were to register deflections of amplitude directly proportional to the energy of these vibrations the tracing would have to be hundreds of metres wide in order to show the diastolic murmur as deflections of 1 mm in width. If the amplitude of the low frequency waves is attenuated logarithmically with regard to their frequency, we are enabled to show the 1 mm diastolic vibrations clearly while the low frequency waves are all reduced in amplitude by this process of filtration, so that they can be confined to paper a few centimetres wide. Workers in phonocardiography have almost always used unsuitable apparatus, and have not been able to register this murmur satisfactorily. We have used a Sanborn phonocardiogram with stethoscopic and logarithmic

registration, and interchangeable chest pieces, and have, with due attention to technique, been able to register every murmur audible clinically.

An analysis of 50 consecutive cases with audible murmurs of aortic or pulmonary regurgitation showed much variation in pattern. The frequency of the vibrations varies from moderately low to moderately high. The murmur usually persists throughout most of diastole. The configuration is that there is usually an early crescendo phase before the longer decrescendo phase. This phenomenon is sometimes audible, but much more frequently registered, and failure to hear the early crescendo phase may be explained by study of the characteristics of the human hearing mechanism. Examples of all types of basal diastolic murmur are shown, excluding the continuous murmurs of patent ductus, A-V aneurysm, and venous hum. Occasional tracings are found where diastolic vibrations are registered when no murmur is audible. The significance of these vibrations is obscure, but their

evaluation is helped by a comparison of their pattern with that of the audible diastolic murmur

Finally, since there is often difference of opinion among cardiologists as to whether a diastolic murmur is present or not, we consider that phono-

cardiography with proper technique may be of value in settling questions of this kind

* This study was made while on a Cabot Fellowship, and with the assistance of Mr Maurice Rappaport, and Dr Howard Sprague of Boston, Mass, U S A

SIMPLE CALIBRATED PHONOCARDIOGRAPHY

BY G J AITKEN (*introduced*)

Knowledge of the frequency response of a phonocardiograph is necessary before records can be adequately interpreted. Even then, comparison with records of other instruments is difficult. Lack of this knowledge resulted in disagreement among earlier investigators. With instruments introducing attenuation of low frequency vibrations, heart sounds appear shorter, and the third sound and possibly important low frequency components of murmurs are recorded less frequently than with instruments that register low frequency vibrations well. The higher frequency murmurs, however, are more easily recorded and their moment of onset defined with just such attenuation of confusing high intensity low frequency cardiac vibrations.

A simple calibrated phonocardiograph is described. Basically it is a stethoscopic phonocardiograph with electrical filters enabling records to be obtained of vibrations in a "low frequency band" of 20 to 200 cycles a second, and in a "high frequency band" of 140 cycles a second upwards.

It offers a fairly satisfactory solution to many difficulties in interpretation of single recordings. The precise frequency characteristics of the basic phonocardiograph are less important. Whatever the likely degree of attenuation of the low frequency components of the cardiac vibrations in the unfiltered phonocardiogram, they are easily recorded at suitable amplitude in the low frequency band, in the absence of all high frequency vibrations.

In the band embracing frequencies greater than 140 cycles a second the predominantly higher frequency of most systolic and diastolic murmurs allow them to be recorded uninfluenced by the high intensity low frequency heart sounds. The first heart sound is represented by sharply defined overtones of its second and third components, more suitable points from which to time aortic or ventricular systolic murmurs than any so far described.

Examples illustrating the value of simple calibrated phonocardiography are given.

A CASE OF POLYARTERITIS NODOSA SHOWING MULTIPLE CORONARY ANEURYSMS

BY JOHN R H TOWERS

The case described is one of polyarteritis nodosa. For years the presence of palpable nodules was regarded as an essential diagnostic criterion in this condition, but recently it has been recognized that palpable lesions of this type are the exception rather than the rule. In this case the diagnosis was not so difficult but the clinical and autopsy findings were so striking as to be of interest.

The patient, a motor mechanic of 39, had no important illness until 1943, when serving in the 6th Airborne Division, he developed a duodenal ulcer, which gave rise to intercurrent dyspepsia and finally to his discharge in 1945. He had intermittent dyspepsia over the last two years, but remained at his work until May, 1948, when he suddenly developed pains in both legs and difficulty in walking, and he had to go to bed. Symptoms were first noticed whilst getting into a motor car. These pains

were present from the knees to the feet. A few days later the pain became generalized, his hands and feet and testicles became slightly swollen and painful. There was in addition, swelling of the left breast which was very tender.

A fortnight after the onset he was free from pain and feeling better. A week later, however, he noticed his stools were black and he developed epigastric pain with some vomiting. This pain was worse before meals and relieved by food, but liable to occur at any time of the day or night and to last for several hours, at times it was very severe.

At this stage, i.e. three weeks after the onset, he had an attack of diplopia lasting half an hour, there was no previous attack and none since. After this there was a return of generalized aches and pains in the limbs and back, his appetite diminished and he lost much weight. His skin, normally rather

deeply pigmented, became darker in colour and he developed a sallow complexion. His sleep was disturbed by pain. Bowels a little constipated, micturition normal. These symptoms continued unaltered until his admission to the Leeds Infirmary in July, approximately ten weeks from the onset.

Examination on admission He was cachectic with pigmentation of the skin, rather suggestive of Addison's disease. He had obviously lost much weight. He was pyrexial up to 101° for four days and thereafter there was no rise of temperature. His pulse rate averaged 100 until a day or two before his death. He had what were taken to be shotty glands in the neck, axillæ, and groins, and the spleen was just palpable. The blood pressure was 130/100. The urine contained a trace of albumen, but no red cells. The heart was not enlarged.

The blood count showed an anæmia without eosinophilia—Hb 71 per cent, red blood cells, 3,700,000, white cells, 9,600, basophils 5 per cent, polymorphs, 74 per cent, eosinophils, 2 per cent, lymphocytes, 20 per cent.

The X-ray of stomach and duodenum showed an appearance consistent with duodenal ulceration. The stools were negative for occult blood. The Wassermann reaction was negative.

Extensive investigation was carried out with no helpful finding, but shortly we discovered that the so-called glands extended down the arms, along the line of the vessels and also to a lesser extent, down the inner aspect of the thighs, and a hard, shotty mass, the size of a pea was felt through the anterior rectal wall. *Biopsy* of one of the masses from the arm showed it to be a thrombosed aneurysm arising from a small muscular vessel, the wall of which showed extensive mucoid degeneration. The diagnosis of periarteritis nodosa was then made. The patient went gradually downhill, became emaciated, and died in September, 1948.

Autopsy This was performed by Dr Carmichael and showed a striking picture. A very large number of aneurysms ranging in size from 1 cm to 2 cm were seen in association with most of the principal arteries in the body, with the exception of those in the lungs and brain. The lesions have all relatively thick fibrous walls and are filled with dense thrombus, mostly of dark red colour but there are also masses of pale greyish-white clot or laminated grey and red clot clinging to the walls of many of the sacs. Few of the aneurysms are attached to vessels large enough to be opened up with scissors, i.e. they apparently spring rather from relatively small unnamed branches than from the larger trunks.

Impressive examples were as follows: a number of aneurysms adhering to the outer surface of the thoracic aorta and related to the intercostal arteries,

a small vessel on the surface of the diaphragm at the attachment to the pericardium, where six close-set aneurysms, each 3 mm in diameter were concentrated in 3 cm of the vessel's length, a 'beading' of the anterior aspect of the bony spine by aneurysms, and numerous aneurysms along the length of the spermatic arteries.

There are many large aneurysms on the right and left gastric arteries to the gastroepiploic artery. The mesentery also shows dozens of aneurysms of a size varying from 2 to 3 mm to nodules almost 1 cm in diameter. The aneurysms related to the stomach measure 1.5 cm and more. The pelvic mesocolon shows only a very few small aneurysms and the position is similar with most of the arteries supplying various parts of the colon. Right, relatively large branch of hepatic artery bears a large aneurysm, 1 cm in diameter, which is on the main stem, but there are several other similar sized aneurysms in this neighbourhood. There are several aneurysms of 2 cm diameter and smaller within the head and body of the pancreas and at least two of these have ruptured, but the effused blood does not extend far into the adjacent tissue. There are few aneurysms in the vicinity of the abdominal aorta. The aneurysms are present on the branches of the splenic aorta in the hilum and substance of the spleen, and of branches of the renal aorta within the venal substance, also in considerable number of small size in the very large portal tracts. No aneurysms on main splenic and renal arteries.

The spleen contains an aneurysm fully 1 cm in diameter and one or two smaller nodules and an infarct at one pole. The kidneys contain numerous thick-walled aneurysms approximately 3 to 6 mm in diameter and located chiefly in the region of the boundary zone or farther in towards the hilus. There is also much recent infarction, and much irregular coarse pitting on the outer surface, probably due to scarring from an old infarction. The renal tissue otherwise is mottled, mostly showing a dusky congestion, other parts are pale. Large tracts of tissue are partially fibrosed.

The stomach was normal apart from well-marked engorgement at the crest of the mucosal folds in places and some hypertrophy of the pylorus and large area of scarring centred over the pylorus and lesser curvature, and spreading into the stomach and duodenum.

The brain and lungs, however, were normal, showing no gross change in their substance or vessels.

There are numerous aneurysms connected with the coronary branches, particularly the arteries supplying the line of the interventricular sulcus, and the anterior and lateral surface of the right ventricle.

At least 30 to 40 aneurysms of varying sizes are present, varying from a few mm to 2.5 cm in diameter. There is a thin layer of fibrinous exudate scattered over the whole epicardial sur-

face. The chambers of the heart are all slightly dilated, but the myocardium has a healthy appearance and texture and shows no evidence of infarction.

ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC STUDIES IN CRETINISM

By BERNARD SCHLESINGER AND BERNHARD LANDTMAN (introduced)

To be published in full, Brit Heart J, July or October 1949

A CASE OF PHEOCHROMOCYTOMA WITH SUSTAINED HYPERTENSION

By LESLIE COLE

This case is described to emphasize the fact that tumours of the adrenal medulla may cause sustained hypertension in the early stages, without giving rise to paroxysmal symptoms, or paroxysmal hypertension, to show the clinical picture in the early stages, and to comment on the use of certain diagnostic aids.

The patient was a farmer's wife aged 35, with three children, and she developed sudden headache three weeks after a severe antepartum hæmorrhage. This persisted daily almost without remission until her death thirteen months later. It was marked in the early morning, grew worse month by month and latterly was associated with early morning nausea, vomiting, profuse sweating, cold hands and feet, shakiness, nervousness of an unusual sort and "peculiar sensations", and during the last three weeks, muscular weakness and exhaustion. The blood pressure was first found to be raised seven months after the onset (180/130) and remained steadily at this level until just before death. Repeated clinical examination was otherwise negative and thorough investigation failed to show any cause. A single paroxysm of hypertension seven days before death (260/150) revealed the probable diagnosis, but came too late to save her life. It was followed by a severe attack of right-sided abdominal pain and paralytic ileus which necessitated laparotomy

and cæcostomy. At operation, a tumour was found at the site of the left suprarenal gland which subsequently proved to be a typical pheochromocytoma. This was removed a week later but the patient succumbed. Autopsy showed that the right-sided pain was due to a large infarct of the right kidney.

Diagnosis is difficult and involves recognition of the syndrome produced by hypersecretion of adrenalin and localization of the tumour or tumours. For the first, it is essential to realize that sustained hypertension is indistinguishable from the essential or malignant type and without paroxysms may be present in the early stages, and also to appreciate the significance of the symptoms illustrated by this case. In this and many others recorded there are unique clinical grounds for suspecting the diagnosis once the clinician is aware of the syndrome. Goldenberg's benzodioxane test then appears to be of great value in confirming it, but this patient died before his paper had been published. To localize the tumour, an intravenous or retrograde pyelogram may be sufficient, but perirenal insufflation may be necessary, or even exploration. Here, although the symptoms and signs pointed to a right-sided lesion, the tumour was on the left. Early diagnosis and accurate localization are extremely important because successful removal may be expected to give complete cure.

THE Q-T INTERVAL IN ACUTE RHEUMATIC CARDITIS

By D. G. ABRAHAMS

(Introduced by PAUL WOOD)

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MULTIPLE UNIPOLAR LEADS

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE BRITISH CARDIAC SOCIETY

The British Cardiac Society at its recent meeting approved the publication of the following report as an expression of present views of the majority of its members

The Council had asked the committee, consisting of Terence East, I G W Hill, Curtis Bain, and Paul Wood to draw up such a report that might help those who wished to have information about present practice Obviously, they have no wish to limit in any way investigations into new and important methods but feel that where routine work, rather than research, is concerned, there are advantages in

some degree of uniformity in leads presented, and in the way they are mounted

It is, perhaps, too soon to reach any final recommendation in this last direction and various suggestions made at the meeting were considered (see Proceedings, p 92) The Editor would be grateful if those submitting papers would generally try to use one or other of these methods, and a figure that is $4\frac{1}{2}$ – $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide is generally easier to print and better looking than one that is tall and narrow

EDITOR

REPORT OF COMMITTEE

Although multiple leads from a series of points across the præcordium are in general use in this country, there is so far only one position for the præcordial electrode defined as standard Single præcordial lead used as routine may afford scanty or even misleading information, and multiple leads are essential

Bipolar chest leads It is suggested that the use of the bipolar chest leads CR and CF be discontinued The distal electrode in the case of CR introduces a positive error, and in the case of CF an error that may be positive or negative, depending on the position of the heart

UNIPOLAR CHEST LEADS

Unipolar V leads avoid this error—The switch is set for lead 1 The exploring or præcordial electrode is attached to the left arm wire of the cardiograph It is then paired with a central terminal (right arm wire of the cardiograph) connected to the right arm, left arm, and left leg. The potential of the central terminal will practically be zero, by Einthoven's formula, as shown by experiment The original method of Wilson connects each of the limbs to the central terminal through equal resistances of at least 5000 ohms The method of Goldberger omits the resistance

The Burger suction electrode (2 cm in diameter) is convenient for the exploring præcordial electrode

Positions The position of the præcordial electrode is indicated by a numeral used according to the following plan V1 shall be used for the right margin of the sternum, in the fourth intercostal space V2 for the left margin of the sternum at the same level V4 for the mid-clavicular line in the fifth intercostal space V3 for a point midway between 2 and 4 V5 for the left anterior axillary line V6 for the mid-axillary line, positions 5 and 6 are on the same level as 4 V7 is the posterior axillary line, and V8 below the apex of the scapula at the same level

VE is used for an epigastric lead below the xiphisternum

RUA stands for a position on the right costal margin just to the right of the midline

The corresponding V positions to the right are shown by the letter R, e g V3R

Standardization As the voltages of V leads are often high it may be convenient to use half standardization ($1\text{mV} = 5\text{ mm}$) in order to confine the deflections to a convenient size If this reduced sensitivity is used it should be employed uniformly in all chest leads, and indicated N/2

UNIPOLAR LIMB LEADS

The augmented unipolar limb leads of Goldberger are obtained by putting the exploring electrode, attached to the left arm wire of the cardiograph, the switch being set for lead 1, on the appropriate limb

The other two limbs are connected to the central terminal, which is attached to the right arm wire of the cardiograph. The deflections are 50 per cent larger than those obtained by the Wilson method. The Goldberger technique is satisfactory. The tracings are labelled a VR, a VL, a VF.

In order to correlate standard limb leads and unipolar limb leads, it is helpful to recall that lead 1 is VL-VR, lead 2 is VF-VR, lead 3 is VF-VL, and that by the Goldberger technique a VL is $\frac{1}{2}(I-III)$, a VR is $-\frac{1}{2}(I+II)$ and VF is $\frac{1}{2}(II+III)$.

SELECTION OF LEADS

The full electrical exploration of the heart involves the taking of at least twelve leads, and sometimes more. The twelve basic leads are (1) the three standard limb leads, (2) the three unipolar limb leads, and (3) the six unipolar precordial V leads.

Until familiarity with the appearances of the deflections in the various leads in different conditions is obtained, these twelve should be recorded as a routine.

In practice the taking of twelve leads is laborious and time-consuming, and involves the use of many films. It is possible to limit the leads recorded to a selected few when a particular lesion is suspected. Films may be economized also by exposing half a strip at a time when the Cambridge instrument is used, and so obtaining six tracings on one film.

The following suggestions may help in selecting leads likely to be most useful in the diagnosis of various lesions. For the preliminary routine approach it may be enough to select V1 or V2 and V4 and V5 or V5 and V6 depending on the size of the heart, and VL and VF. These may suggest what further records are needed for full electrical exploration. The clinical findings may suggest special leads.

It is important to record potentials from the surface of the left ventricle, this may necessitate the use of leads V6 or V7 when the interventricular septum is displaced to the left, or when there is clockwise rotation of the heart about its longitudinal axis (viewed from below).

Unipolar limb leads are particularly useful in showing the position of the heart, the combination of VL and VF is best for this.

VF shows auricular activity well, and so is useful for auricular arrhythmias, it is also useful for posterior infarcts.

VL shows lateral infarcts.

VR is of less value and may generally be omitted.

Right ventricular leads V1 and V2

These show best

- 1 Some infarcts of the myocardium
- 2 Right bundle branch block
- 3 Right ventricular hypertrophy
- 4 Massive pulmonary embolism
- 5 Auricular arrhythmias (V1 particularly)

Left ventricular leads V4-6

These show best

- 1 Some infarcts of the myocardium
- 2 Left ventricular hypertrophy
- 3 Left bundle branch block

Myocardial ischaemia V1 V2 V3 V4 V5 V6
VL VF

Infarction can usually be detected and defined by V2-V6 and VL and VF. For high antero-lateral infarction records may be taken in the third and fourth interspaces vertically above V4, V5, and V6. VF is useful for distinguishing posterior infarction from other Q III patterns, particularly those due to transverse position of the heart, or to massive pulmonary embolism.

Bundle Branch Block Right V1 V2

Left V5 V6 V7, according to the degree of enlargement to the left.

Massive Pulmonary Embolism V1 V3 V5 VF

Pericarditis V1 V3 V5

Auricular Arrhythmias V1 and VF

Mounting of records The V precordial leads are most conveniently shown, horizontally in numerical order, with V1 as the first record.

TERENCE EAST
CURTIS BAIN

I G W HILL
PAUL WOOD

ABSTRACTS OF CARDIOLOGY

Maternal Congenital Heart Disease as an Obstetric Problem C. J. LUND *Amer J Obstet Gynec*, 55, 244-261, Feb., 1948

Details are given of a study of 25 cases of pregnancy complicated by congenital heart disease, 29 infants in all being delivered. There were 13 with a patent ductus arteriosus, 8 with interventricular defect, 4 with interauricular communications, 1 with pulmonary stenosis, and 4 of undetermined type. Toxæmia was a common and severe complication. Premature delivery took place in over 25%. Labour tended to be shorter than the average, and forceps delivery was resorted to in over one-third of the cases although half of the patients were multiparæ. All patients were classified according to the functional groups of the New York Heart Association, before pregnancy, during the first 3 months and the last 3 months, during labour, and later in the puerperium. The blood pressure, vital capacity, venous pressure, and circulation times were investigated in many of the patients. It was found that decrease of vital capacity was most valuable in prognosis. A sudden fall in blood pressure was noticed repeatedly soon after confinement and gave rise to considerable anxiety, the mechanism of this is discussed. A patent ductus arteriosus was found to be the most serious of the congenital cardiac complications. All but 1 of the cases of cardiac failure were associated with this lesion, as was also the only fatality.

Braithwaite Rickford

The Occurrence of Paroxysmal Cardiac Arrhythmia Following Air Embolism C. GOBIN *Arch Mal Cœur*, 40, 482-484, Nov.-Dec., 1947

A student was entrusted with the operation of transfusing a donor's blood directly into the veins of a patient with septicæmia. He thrust the recipient's needle into the veins of the donor though fortunately failed to enter the veins of the septicæmic patient with the other needle. The subsequent attempts to carry out the transfusion caused the injection of about 200 ml. of air into the veins of the donor but no blood. The donor, whose arm-veins became inflated, was alarmed and eventually brought the operation to an abrupt end by pulling out the needle and releasing the tourniquet. His veins deflated but he was seized with a tickling sensation in the throat, with cough and violent dyspnoea. He lost consciousness for 4 to 5 minutes and did not recover his health for some days. For 5 months after this accident he was subject to attacks of paroxysmal tachycardia or palpitation lasting from a few seconds to a few minutes. The radiograph of his chest revealed a slight left ventricular hypertrophy. Eventually he had an attack of arrhythmia lasting for days and an electrocardiogram showed auricular fibrillation.

He had no subsequent attacks and later acted again as a blood donor.

The author considers this to be an instance of an autonomic excitation initiated by the presence of air in the pulmonary vessels.

H. E. Holling

Effect of Intravenous Cytochrome C on Capacity for Effort Without Pain in Angina of Effort H. BARST and S. H. RINZLER *Proc Soc exp Biol, N.Y.*, 67, 531-533, April, 1948

Cytochrome C enhances the uptake of oxygen by the tissues. When injected intravenously it is capable of restoring to normal an electrocardiogram in which changes have been produced by inhalation of a 10% oxygen mixture. The authors have shown that cytochrome C in 50-mg. doses given intravenously to patients suffering from angina of effort is unable to increase their capacity for effort without pain.

A. I. Suchett-Kave

Treatment of Hypertensive Vascular Disease with Rice Diet W. KEMPNER *Amer J Med*, 4, 545-577, April, 1948

For the past 4 years the author has advocated a rice=fruit-sugar diet in hypertensive vascular disease and all forms of nephritis. This diet contains in 2000 calories, not more than 5 g. of fat, 20 g. of protein, 200 mg. of chloride, and 150 mg. of sodium. All fruits and fruit juices are allowed, sugar and dextrose are unrestricted, and supplementary vitamins are given. The effects of this diet on the blood and urine chemistry, blood pressure, heart size and electrocardiogram, oedema, and retinal arteriopathies in several hundred patients are recorded and illustrated by typical examples. [It is extremely doubtful if the inferences which the author draws from his data would stand up to strict statistical scrutiny.]

Henry Cohen

Coexisting Auricular Fibrillation and Complete Heart Block. E. A. HAUNZ and H. L. SMITH *Amer J Med*, 4, 237-242, Feb., 1948

A series of 10 cases of auricular fibrillation and complete heart block, all in patients with advanced cardiovascular disease, were studied. The authors' two main points are that (1) the presence of this combination, in the absence of a digitalis effect, implies a serious prognosis, (2) it is important to distinguish heart block due to intrinsic cardiac disease from that due to digitalis. In cases in which symptoms of digitalis intoxication are slight or absent the distinction can be made by observing serial electrocardiograms.

R. T. Grant

Correlation Between the Effect of Quinidine Sulfate on the Heart and Its Concentration in the Blood Plasma R. WÉGRIA and M. N. BOYLE. *Amer J Med*, 4, 373-382, March 1948

It was found that after administration of a single oral dose of quinidine to patients with auricular fibrillation the effect on the circus rate of the auricle was roughly parallel to the quinidine concentration in plasma but no strict quantitative relation existed. For example 2 hours after oral administration of 0.8 g. of quinidine sulphate the circus rate fell from 402 to 285 a minute and the plasma concentration of quinidine was 2.6 mg per litre, whereas 10 hours after the administration of quinidine the circus rate was practically the same, 292 a minute, but the plasma concentration was only 1.3 mg per litre. From a further series of experiments on dogs it is concluded that such quantitative discrepancies are due to the fact that the effect on the heart is not proportional to the concentration of drug in either the plasma or the myocardium. Indeed, an excessive increase in the concentration in heart tissue leads to a decrease in cardiac effect.

T. Semple

Electrocardiographic Patterns of Ventricular Aneurysm E. GOLDBERGER and S. P. SCHWARTZ. *Amer J Med*, 4, 243-247, Feb., 1948

In a series of 40 cases of myocardial infarction with and without ventricular aneurysm, all the cases with aneurysm were associated with an upward QRS complex in the right arm lead of the electrocardiogram. This suggests that absence of this feature in a case of myocardial infarction indicates absence of aneurysm.

R. T. Grant

The Arterioles of the Skin in Essential Hypertension. E. M. FARBER, E. A. HINES, H. A. MONTGOMERY, and W. MCK. CRAIG. *J invest Derm*, 9, 285-298, Dec., 1947

The authors review earlier studies on the arterioles of patients with hypertension, and present a comparable study of the arterioles of the skin. The wall to lumen ratio is lower in the hypertensive group, with a mean of 1.57 (70 cases), against 2.14 in the 52 control cases, there is, however, considerable overlapping. Moritz and Oldt (*Amer J Path*, 1937, 13, 679) have already shown that the thickening of the wall and narrowing of the lumen which commonly indicate a state of hypertension may be completely absent in cases with hypertension of long-standing. Conversely they find (in agreement again with Moritz and Oldt) that arteriolosclerosis may exist in the absence of hypertension and without any obvious correlation with age.

A. C. Lendrum

Secondary Malignant Disease of the Heart. R. W. RAVEN. *Brit J Cancer*, 2, 1-7, March, 1948

This paper analyses 51 cases of secondary tumours in the heart or pericardium from the necropsy records of the Royal Cancer Hospital. The primary tumours were

distributed amongst most of the organs of the body. Carcinoma of the breast was the commonest primary tumour (14 cases), secondary growth usually involved the pericardium, alone or together with the heart muscle, and was sometimes first manifested many years after radical extirpation of the primary tumour, periods of 5 and 16 years being recorded.

The pericardium was sometimes normal save for an isolated secondary tumour, but otherwise pericardial effusion, fibrous obliteration, or obliteration by massive deposits of tumour were found. Hydrothorax and ascites resulted from cardiac failure. The symptoms sometimes resembled those of subacute bacterial endocarditis. Dyspnoea, tachycardia, and cardiac irregularities such as auricular fibrillation or flutter were frequent outstanding signs. Some symptoms were attributable to the location of the tumour, causing heart-block, or to pericardial or pleural effusion but were not pathognomonic and further investigations were required to establish the diagnosis, including paracentesis for pericardial effusion and cytological examination of the fluid for tumour cells, radiological examination of the heart including tomography, and electrocardiography, the value of this last proceeding is emphasized. When the primary tumour is known to be radiosensitive, high voltage x-irradiation may be useful in the diagnosis and treatment of cardiac secondary growths.

L. Foulds

"Functional" Subclavian Arterial Murmur. Possible Relation to Scalenus Anticus Syndrome, Costoclavicular Compression, or the Neurovascular Syndrome of Wright. R. B. POMERANTZ. *Ann Surg*, 127, 688-695, April, 1948

In a routine examination of 2619 candidates in Texas the author discovered 20 females and 1 male in whom there was a systolic murmur over the subclavian artery (or arteries). The first 11 cases were dismissed as cases of functional murmurs, but the other 10 received more detailed examination. The murmur predominated on the left, appearing on that side alone 11 times, it appeared on the right side alone once, bilaterally 5 times, and in 4 cases the side was not noted. General medical examination and radiographs of the chest were negative, except in 1 case where there was inactive apical tuberculosis on the opposite side to the murmur. The murmur is constant, fairly loud and definite, and accentuated by deep inspiration or gradual abduction of the arm. The greater the abduction the louder the murmur up to 135 to 150 degrees, when it disappeared because the blood flow to the arm had ceased. No case was observed which was thought to be a scalenus syndrome and in only 1 was the murmur thought to derive from costo-clavicular compression. The presence of the murmur when the subject is in a relaxed sitting position suggests some as yet undefined mechanism by which the artery is obstructed even before abduction begins. The preponderance on the left side would indicate an anatomical variation, but in the absence of symptoms surgical exploration was not thought to be justified and the question of causation is unsettled.

H. T. Simmons

Elementary Atlas of Cardiography H WALLACE-JONES, E NOBLE CHAMBERLAIN, and E L RUBIN John Wright and Sons, Ltd, Bristol, 12/6

This little book does not pretend to be anything more than its title implies. A short descriptive text introduces each series of cardiograms, which are beautifully reproduced and clearly annotated. However, no attempt is made to outline the elementary physics of electrocardiography, and a description of unipolar leads is entirely omitted. A brief essay on cardiac radiology precedes a well selected and representative collection of excellent radiograms, which includes all the more common cardiac conditions. The reproduction of these plates is of the highest quality, and indeed the whole volume reflects great praise on the publishers. The omission of an index is regretted. J L Lovibond

Seasonal Variations in Heart and Coronary Disease as Related to Various Environmental Factors H R BROWN and R. PEARSON *Amer Heart J*, 35, 763-768, May, 1948

A study of the vital statistics for the city of New York from 1934 to 1944 reveals that the death rate from heart disease, particularly coronary disease, is inversely related to the rise of monthly temperature, and not related to the relative humidity of the atmosphere. H E Holling

Experiences with a New Synthetic Analgesic, Amidone. Its Action on Ischemic Pains of Occlusive Arterial Diseases R J POPKIN *Amer Heart J*, 35, 793-799, May, 1948

'Amidone' (methadon, "physeptone") (6-dimethyl amino-4, 4-diphenyl 3 heptanone hydrochloride), which resembles morphine in its action, was given to a number of patients with peripheral vascular disease who suffered from pain at rest. The dose was 5 to 15 mg by mouth. The drug relieved the pain at rest but was ineffective in intermittent claudication. One of the 18 patients developed a hæmorrhagic urticaria and ambulant patients suffered from light-headedness, nausea, and vomiting. H E Holling

Effect of Sympathectomy on Blood Flow in the Human Limb I D STEIN, K. HARPUDEK, and J BYER *Amer J Physiol*, 152, 499-504, March, 1948

A comparison was made by the use of plethysmographic methods of recording, of the blood flow in the foot (predominantly skin) and calf (predominantly muscle) in human patients, before and after sympathectomy of the lower limbs for peripheral vascular disease. The results show that, whereas the blood flow through skin was increased by sympathectomy, that through muscle was relatively unchanged. Exercise, local heating, and arterial occlusion and release were effective stimuli in increasing blood flow through sympathectomized muscles, suggesting that vasodilators of metabolic origin, and not the innervation, are important factors in the blood supply of muscles. The results indicate that sympathectomy is of value clinically for increasing the blood flow through skin, but not through muscle. R A Gregory

Measurement of the Total Transverse Diameter of the Heart by Direct Percussion W D STROUD, M W STROUD, and D S MARSHALL. *Amer Heart J* 35 780-786, May, 1948

In 333 examinations of 305 patients the transverse diameter of the heart as measured by direct percussion was compared with that obtained from a telerradiograph. 74% of the values obtained from percussion were within $\pm 10\%$ of the values obtained from radiography and 88% were within $\pm 15\%$ of the radiographic values. Fifty-five comparable examinations on 45 women gave similar results. The clinical method of percussing the heart size appears therefore to be of value. H E Holling

Perforation of the Infarcted Interventricular Septum. Report of Two Cases, one Diagnosed Antemortem N O FOWLER and R B FAILEY *Amer J med Sci*, 215, 534-541, May, 1948

Two cases of perforation of the infarcted interventricular septum are reported. In one of them the diagnosis was made during life. A review of reported cases revealed 56 similar, in 15 of which the diagnosis was made during life. The condition should be suspected in any patient who shortly after a myocardial infarction, suddenly develops a systolic thrill and murmur in the third and fourth intercostal spaces just to the left of the sternum. These patients tend to develop right ventricular failure. In 38 cases the survival time was described, this being less than a month in 31. A further 6 patients died within a year, and 1 patient lived 4 years and 10 months. Out of 45 patients examined 43 had a systolic murmur, which in 22 was associated with a thrill. Rupture of a papillary muscle following infarction may be confused with this condition, but in the former the murmur tends to be heard best nearer to the apex, the patient's condition deteriorates rapidly, and the heart failure is left-sided rather than right-sided. C Bruce Perry

Blood Volume and Sympathectomy in Hypertension W D DAVIS and H S MAYERSON. *Proc Soc exp Biol*, N Y, 68, 117-120, May, 1948

Blood volume changes were investigated in 20 patients with hypertension who had undergone sympathectomy. There were 11 women and 9 men, their ages ranged from 22 to 50 years and the periods of follow up from 3 to 18 months. Plasma volume was measured photo-colorimetrically with the T 1824 dye, whole blood and red cell volumes were calculated from hematocrit readings (Wintrobe). No consistent post-operative changes in the blood volume were found, and no consistent deviation from "normal" values was observed pre-operatively. It was noted that in 5 patients in whom the red cell volume was low before operation the response to sympathectomy was poor, whereas in 5 patients in whom the red cell volume was normal, or above normal, the results were good. In patients with long-standing vascular disease there was a tendency to low blood volume. A Schott

The Use of Vitamin E in Heart Disease S BAER, W I HEINE, and D B GELFOND *Amer J med Sci*, 215, 542-547, May, 1948

The effect of vitamin E orally in doses of 300 to 400 mg daily was observed in 22 patients with various forms of heart disease. The authors conclude that, although their numbers are few, they cannot, from the evidence, recommend vitamin E in the treatment of congestive heart failure, angina pectoris, or hypertension.

C Bruce Perry

Adreno sympathetic Heart Disease (Neurohormonal Factors in Pathogenesis and Treatment) W RAAB *Ann intern Med*, 28, 1010-1039, May, 1948

The author points out that mechanical overload is not necessarily the whole explanation of hypertensive heart disease. Many of the features of hypertensive heart disease may be found without hypertension. He calls attention to the possible pathogenic role of adrenaline and allied substances. Adrenaline intensifies the oxygen consumption of the heart, and may induce a state of anoxia, identical with experimental anoxia in diseased human hearts and in animal hearts after severe exercise. The author considers that anginal attacks are accompanied by abnormal elevation of the adrenaline sympathin levels in the blood. Hypertensive heart disease is not necessarily accompanied by any rise in adrenaline level in the blood, but abnormally high elevations of the levels of this and similar substances may follow physical exercise in patients with hypertension. The electrocardiographic features of hypertensive heart disease are similar to those which result from the injection of adrenaline, and it is emphasized that the abnormal electrocardiogram may revert to normal after sympathectomy, even if the patient remains hypertensive. The author develops similar arguments to account for changes in the heart in uræmia, thyrotoxicosis, and beriberi. These arguments are supported by a very extensive bibliography of 235 references.

J McMichael

Endocardial Potentials in Right Heart Hypertrophy Comparison with the Oesophageal Electrocardiogram P SCHLESINGER, A BURLAMAQUI ENCHIMOL, and M R COTRIM *Arch Clin* 6, 139-155, March, 1948

Battro and Bidoggia have drawn attention to the similarity of the ventricular complex with the electrode in the right auricle and with the oesophageal lead in both healthy and diseased subjects. This paper deals with 5 cases of right-sided hypertrophy. The electrode, attached to a fine insulated wire, is introduced through the right external jugular vein, "sodium amylal" being used as premedication. There were no untoward effects, penicillin being given subsequently for 48 hours. Standard, unipolar, and precordial leads, and leads with the electrode at different intra-auricular and intra ventricular levels were taken. The P wave is negative with the electrode at a high auricular level and gradually becomes positive as the electrode passes into the ventricle, the QRS complex at auricular level was positive in 3 cases

and negative in 2. The ST segment was elevated in 3 cases when the electrode was in the ventricle. The oesophageal leads, taken at auricular level, were found to have QRS complexes similar to those taken at intra-auricular level. Very similar complexes were also found with the unipolar VR lead. Some anomalous changes were thought to be due to the impulse passing over the wall of the interventricular septum.

Paul B Woolley

Influence of Hypotension on Coronary Blood Flow, Cardiac Work and Cardiac Efficiency J E ECKENHOFF, J. A HAFKENSCHIEL, E L FOLTZ, and R. L DRIVER *Amer J Physiol*, 152, 545-553, March 1948

In lightly anesthetized intact dogs, coronary blood flow was measured by the nitrous oxide method, coronary sinus blood being obtained by catheterization. Cardiac output was estimated by the direct Fick method. Hypotension was produced either by the subarachnoid injection of procaine solution or the intravenous injection of tetraethylammonium chloride. A decrease in cardiac output and cardiac work (cardiac output \times aortic pressure) occurred. Coronary blood flow decreased but the rate remained relatively high in relation to the decreased work. Cardiac efficiency (work/oxygen consumption) was reduced but there was no evidence that the heart was less able to perform the work required of it that is, that the hypotension was harmful to the heart.

R A Gregory

The Course of Beriberi Heart Disease in American Prisoners-of war in Japan. R. J ALLEMAN and G H STOLLERMAN *Ann intern Med*, 28, 949-962 May, 1948

It is generally thought that heart disease due to beriberi is accompanied by right heart enlargement and manifestations of a rapid circulation, and that a response to aneurin (thiamin) therapy is diagnostic. More recently, the diagnosis has been made when there is evidence of gross dietetic deficiency together with peripheral neuritis in the presence of an enlarged failing heart for which there is no other explanation. Even failure to improve with aneurin does not exclude the diagnosis. Should the heart respond well to the specific vitamin relapses may still occur.

Two cases are described. In the first, there was a gross nutritional inadequacy, with widespread oedema, cramps in the legs, and incoordination. The patient improved on treatment with the ordinary cardiac remedies, with aneurin, but very quickly relapsed. A further improvement occurred for a time, but in a third attack he died. Apart from some degeneration of the myocardial fibres and infiltration with small round cells no other explanation of the failure was found at necropsy. In the second case the onset was similar, but the patient made a good recovery when given an adequate diet and large doses of vitamins orally and parenterally. The symptoms cleared up at the end of 4 months.

J McMichael

ARTERIOVENOUS ANEURYSM OF THE LUNG

BY

CHARLES BAKER AND J R TROUNCE

From Guy's Hospital

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Arteriovenous aneurysms in the lesser circulation produce a clear-cut clinical picture and illustrate again that we do not know how commonly conditions occur until they are first described. The number reported since Rodes' paper in 1938 indicate that it is by no means rare and it is a condition that can be successfully treated. It is striking, however, that although a congenital lesion, often with obvious evidence from early years, it has so far been diagnosed almost exclusively in adults. The recent interest in cyanotic congenital heart disease, which has followed the possibility of operative treatment, may well reveal further cases as it did in the examples here described. It is to stress the importance of earlier recognition of a treatable condition that we are reporting two cases and reviewing the present knowledge of this disease.

THE FIRST CASE

D C, aged 27, was referred to Guy's in September 1947 as a case of cyanotic congenital heart disease to see if he was suitable for a Blalock-Taussig operation. He was the youngest of five children and there was no history of a similar condition in his family. Cyanosis, which was gradually and steadily progressive, was noticed at the age of 4, and a year later a diagnosis of congenital heart disease was made. His school life was restricted more by medical advice than by ill-health or disability. At 14 he left school and worked first as an errand boy using a bicycle, but after a year he was forced to take less active employment. His working life finished at the age of 19 when he was a shop assistant—work that he could do without distress—and at this time he was still cycling five miles a day. One day he tripped up in the shop and fell, and this accident was mis-diagnosed by his employer as a fit. He was dismissed as a potential liability. His cyanosis, which was by now extreme, prevented his finding other employment, much as he

desired and sought it, and he remained at home until September 1947, when hope of relief for his supposed congenital heart condition brought him to hospital. In this eight years there was gradual deterioration of his condition. A year before he was seen he had tried to cycle again and found he could barely manage a mile, and by the time he was admitted he could only walk 100 to 400 yards on the level. Œdema of the ankles had been almost continuous for the last four years and there was cough without sputum. In 1943 he was admitted to hospital with nose bleeding and this had continued at intervals particularly in hot weather. For the last two years he had attacks about once a month, particularly after bending down, when he felt weak 'with a film over the left eye and sizzling in the ears', there was no giddiness or loss of consciousness and the attack lasted ten minutes. Careful questioning could not elicit any story of hæmoptysis. He did not squat on his haunches when breathless or distressed.

On examination he was a spare well-built man, 5 ft 7 in in height and 112 lb in weight. He was grossly cyanosed with a blotchy, pitted face as seen in seborrhæic subjects, there was very marked clubbing of fingers and toes (Fig 1 and 2). He was breathless on slight exertion but there was no orthopnoea. His neck veins were not distended, the liver was just palpable but not tender, the lung bases did not sound wet, but there was slight pitting œdema of the ankles. The pulse was regular. The heart showed no clinical enlargement, which is not against a diagnosis of Fallot's tetralogy but with this in mind one was surprised to find an absence of any murmur, pulsation in the second left intercostal space was the only finding of note. The blood pressure was 105/80 in the arms and 170/110 in the legs. Screening showed a heart slightly enlarged (13/25 cm) with the pulmonary conus prominent and an enlarged right ventricle. In the right lower lung field was a circumscribed shadow with a well-defined margin, calcified in its lower and



FIG 1 —Case 1, aged 27, showing deep cyanosis and cutaneous angiomata

lateral part This was connected to the right hilum by a well-marked vascular shadow and there was pulsation from hilum to the tumour, which itself did not appear to pulsate, the vessels of the left hilum were not increased (Fig 3A) The electrocardiogram (Fig 7) showed marked right axis deviation with broad and prominent P waves in leads I and II and an inverted T in lead III

After the shadow in the lung had been seen, the two important points needed to clinch the diagnosis of arteriovenous aneurysm were looked for, and found On listening at the right base posteriorly there was a well-marked localized systolic murmur, but no diastolic element Angiomata were found on the inner side of the lips and on the buttocks (Fig 4) and it was clear the seborrhœic disfigurement of the face had masked further small angiomata though the smaller ones were still difficult to see owing to the intense cyanosis (Fig 1) A diagnosis of arteriovenous aneurysm of the lung was made,

and he was admitted in February 1948 for further investigation with a view to operative treatment

The blood picture showed marked polycythæmia with 7.5 million red cells, a hæmoglobin of 140 per cent, and a hæmatocrit of 90, the white cells were 8000 per cu mm with a normal differential count The circulation times were done by Dr Allanby, the arm to tongue time with decholin being 14 sec and arm to lung time with paraldehyde being 8.5 sec, both lying within normal limits Probably the viscosity of the blood due to his polycythæmia nullified any tendency to a quickening of the circulation rate due to the shunt The vital capacity was 2.5 litres Unipolar limb and chest leads showed a vertical heart but no evidence of right ventricular hypertrophy The blood volume was calculated by Dr Reeve, the volume of red blood cells being measured by injecting a known amount of radioactive red cells He points out that owing to the abnormal mixing of the blood the

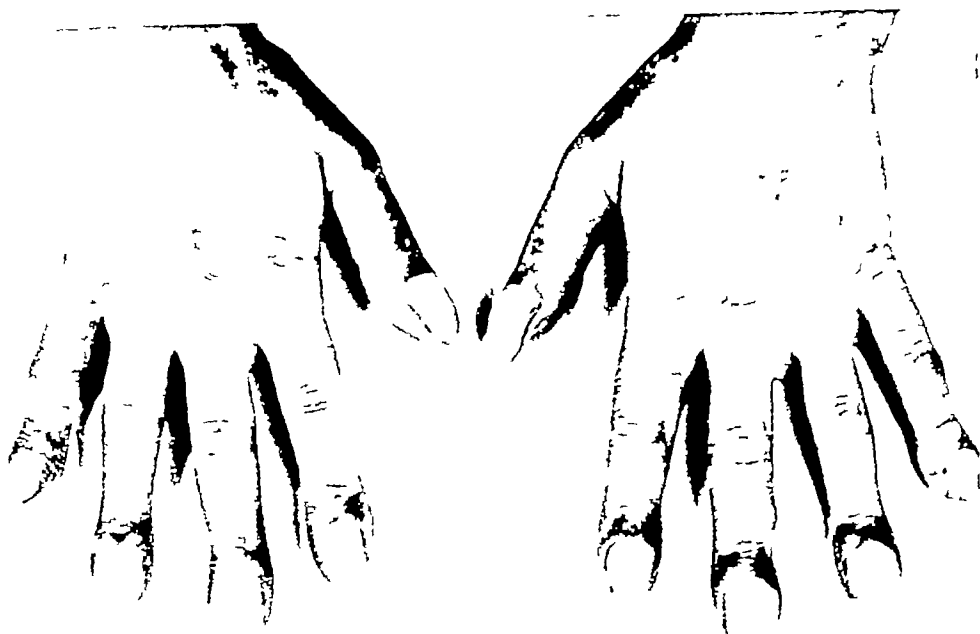


FIG 2.—Case 1, showing clubbing of the fingers

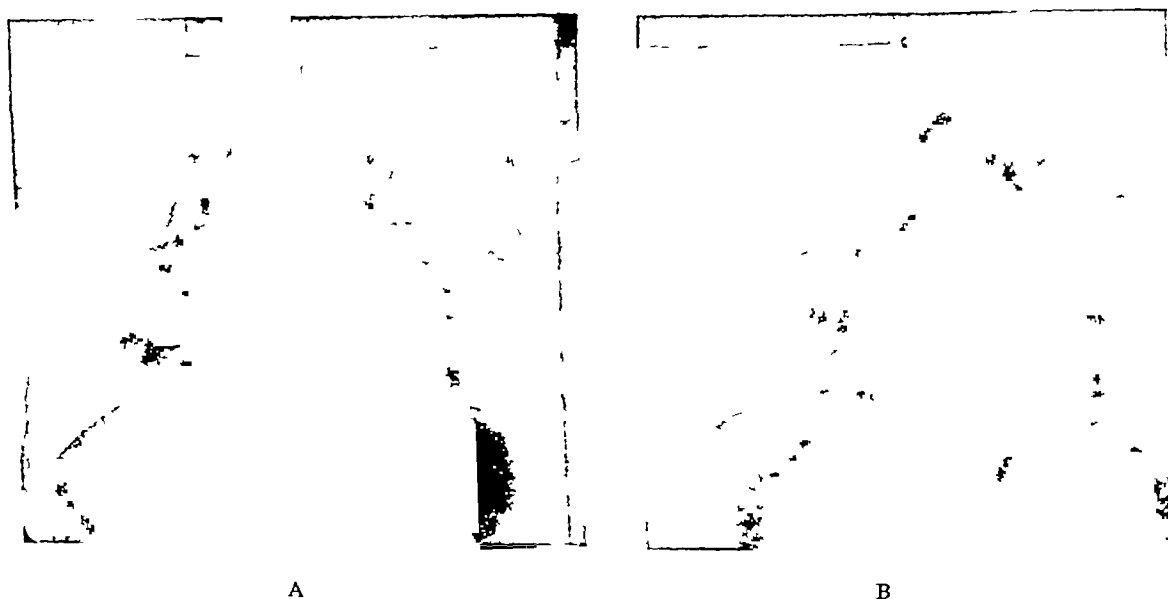


FIG 3—Case 1 (A) Straight X-ray with partly calcified aneurysm attached to right hilum by vascular shadow (B) Angiocardiogram at 2 sec showing two additional vascular tumours, one in the right lower zone near the mediastinum and a small one in the left lower zone behind the heart shadow



FIG 4—Case 1 Buttocks showing angiomata

figures are approximate, but a red blood cell volume of 6960 ml and a total blood volume of 8580 ml show an increase above normal

The angiocardigram taken by Dr Hills showed well the filling of the opacity previously seen and in addition two further vascular tumours, one in the right lower zone nearer the mediastinum and a small one in the left lower zone behind the heart shadow (Fig 3B). X-ray films of hands and feet showed no pulmonary osteopathy

Cardiac catheterization was done by Drs H E Holling and G Zak and both branches of the pulmonary artery were entered without difficulty, and the findings are summarized in Table I

The finding of a normal pressure in the right auricle is interesting in view of the suggestion of cardiac failure furnished by the slight œdema of his ankles. The lower pressure in the right pulmonary artery may be a consequence of the lower peripheral

resistance offered by the hæmangioma on that side. The general opinion that the peripheral resistance of lung vessels is negligible is against this view, but the blood was extremely viscous and the difference in peripheral resistance of the two lungs was probably great

Estimations of the cardiac output and of the quantities of blood passing through the pulmonary hæmangiomata were made

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cardiac Output} &= \frac{\text{Oxygen Consumption}}{\text{Oxygen Content Pulmonary Vein (Arterial Blood)} \\ &\quad - \text{Oxygen Content Pulmonary Artery (ml/litre)}} \\ &= \frac{230}{231 - 212} = 12 \text{ litres} \end{aligned}$$

Assuming that the blood passing through the pulmonary capillaries becomes 95 per cent saturated with oxygen, the pulmonary capillary circulation was estimated as 2.6 litres

TABLE I
RESULTS OF CARDIAC CATHETERIZATION

	Inferior vena cava	Superior vena cava	Right auricle	Right ventricle	Pulmonary artery		Brachial artery
					Right	Left	
Oxygen content (Vol per 100 ml)	23.6	21.1	21	20.6	21.2	21.3	23.1
Percentage saturation	74	66.6	66.4	65.2	67.1	67.3	73
Pressure, mm Hg	8	—	8	17	12	15	105/80

The pulmonary shunt equals the cardiac output less the pulmonary capillary circulation, i.e. 9.4 (12-2.6) litres a minute, which is 80 per cent of the cardiac output.

This estimation of the proportion of blood passing through a shunt in the circulation is surprising but is not impossible considering the depth of the cyanosis. It compares reasonably with estimated shunts in badly cyanosed congenital hearts and with arteriovenous fistulae of the systemic circulation. The assumed figure of 95 per cent saturation of the blood after passage through the lung capillaries seems reasonable since the cyanosis of the patient did not lessen when he breathed oxygen. Even if a figure of 85 per cent saturation is assumed the shunt would still prove to be 70 per cent of the cardiac output.

Mr R. C. Brock operated on April 5, 1948, with an anaesthetic of intratracheal cyclopropane and curare by Dr Hutton. A right posterolateral thoracotomy found the upper and middle lobes free but the lower lobe was bound down to the chest wall and diaphragm by many collateral vessels. Some calcification could be felt on the surface and within the substance of the lower lobe, which also showed expansile pulsation and a thrill and was supplied by a very large artery, approximately 2 cm in diameter. During the course of the operation the right middle lobe bronchus was wounded and it was therefore necessary to remove both the right lower and middle lobes. This was very difficult, partially because of the multiple vascular adhesions to the chest wall and diaphragm and partially due to the incomplete interlobar fissures, and as a result there was considerable blood loss. Before the removal of the tumour the patient's condition was poor, his systolic blood pressure was between 70 and 80 and was not improved either by transfusion or by bronchoscopic clearance of his normal lung. However, after right and middle lobes had been successfully removed he partially recovered, his blood pressure rising to 85/50 and his cyanosis disappearing. The operation lasted five hours, and during this period he received 3 pints of plasma and 1.5 pints of blood.

On returning to the ward his condition failed to improve, although his colour remained good and there was now no evidence of cyanosis, his systolic blood pressure did not rise above 90, his respirations were shallow, bubbling and stertorous and he was deeply unconscious. X-ray of his chest showed complete collapse of his right upper lobe and on bronchoscopy a few ml of mucoid material were aspirated. In spite of a transient improvement with this measure he lapsed into deeper coma and died some thirty hours after operation.

Necropsy was done by Dr F. Camps, on April 7, 1948, twenty-three hours after death. There was about 250 ml of free fluid blood in the right pleural cavity and a slight extravasation into the posterior mediastinum. The remaining upper right lobe contained no air but some lymph deposits. The left lung was moderately well aerated, deeply congested, with peripheral collapse of the lower lobe where there was also a small haemangioma. Subpleural and pericardial haemorrhages were seen. The heart was normal with some right sided dilatation. There was gross distension of the veins of the liver but no angiomas. The kidneys were also congested with dilated veins.

The specimen removed at operation is shown in Fig. 5 and is reported on by Dr Allanby. "The specimen consists of the right middle and lower lobes. The pleura is wrinkled due to partial collapse of the lobes, but bears no sign of inflammation. The lateral pleural surface of the lower lobe shows patches of calcification, more easily felt than seen. Some fibrous adhesions are seen upon the diaphragmatic surface. The pulmonary vein leaving the lower lobe is grossly dilated and appears to communicate with a large thin-walled loculated system of spaces. The cut surface of the lower lobe shows a multilocular haemangioma in its substance, measuring 3.5 cm by 3.0 cm adjacent to the calcified pleura, and 4 cm from the main lower lobe bronchus. A branch of the pulmonary artery communicates directly with this cavernous space without capillary intervention. The surrounding lung and the middle lobe are normal. Sections showed the typical microscopic appearances of a cavernous haemangioma."

THE SECOND CASE

J. A., aged 13, was admitted to Guy's Hospital in September 1948 with acute osteomyelitis in the middle of the shaft of the left femur, this was associated with a positive blood culture and quickly responded to treatment with penicillin. Cyanosis was noticed at 5 years and had progressed to a degree when it was obvious at rest, with marked clubbing of the fingers and toes. He had early been diagnosed as congenital heart disease and attended a special school, to which he was driven by ambulance, once there, he played football without any distress. Both parents and their three other children were normal. A provisional diagnosis of arteriovenous aneurysm of the lung as the cause of his cyanosis was made on admission by the registrar, Dr W. D. Brinton, on the X-ray appearance of the lung (Fig. 6A) and was confirmed by the finding of a continuous murmur in the left upper chest as soon

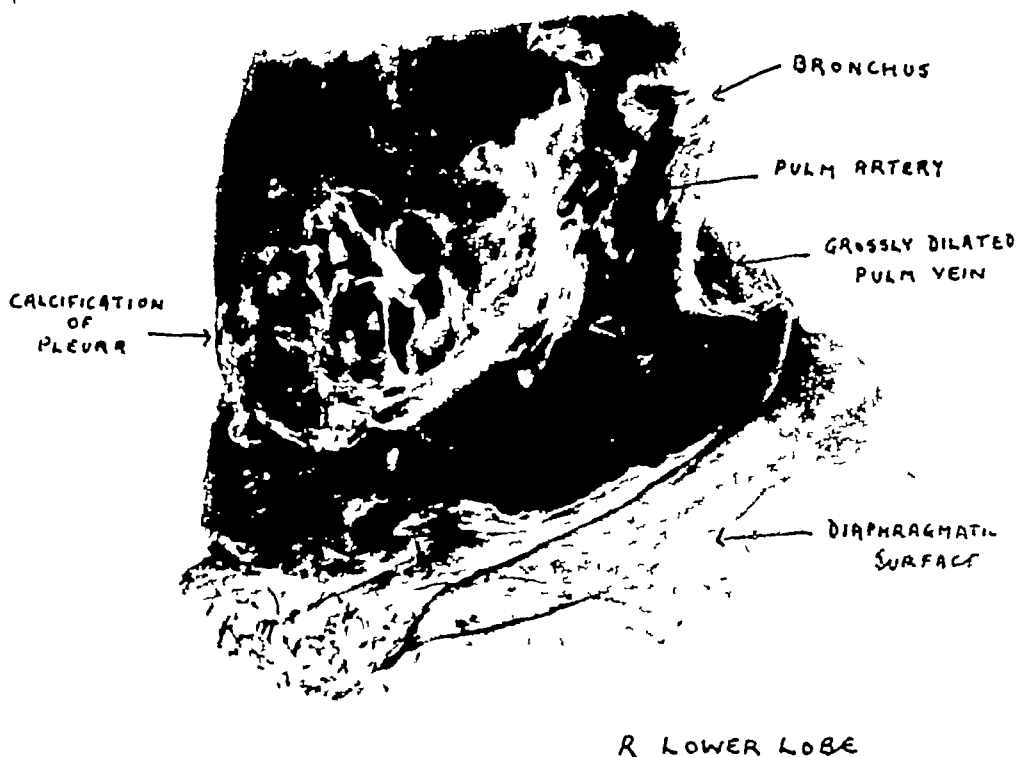


FIG 5—Case 1 Cut surface of lower lobe removed at operation

as the pulse slowed, and subsequently by angiocardiogram (Fig 6B)

He was a boy of average height for his age, but spare. Cyanosis was obvious at rest, with some suffusion of the conjunctivæ, and was increased by exercise, though he was not unduly breathless. Clubbing was marked. He did not squat when tired. The heart was not enlarged clinically and on X-ray showed a prominent pulmonary conus only and a cardio-thoracic ratio of 10/23 cm. There was a short systolic murmur in the first and second left spaces 2 to 3 in from the midline and an increased pulmonary second sound. Apart from this, heard over a wide area but best appreciated 10 cm from the midline in the second space, was a more distant but clear continuous murmur, which could just be heard in the back above the left scapula; there was no thrill. The blood pressure was 115/75. Careful search found no systemic angiomas. The hæmoglobin was 126, with 72

million red cells and a colour index of 0.88. The electrocardiogram (Fig 8) showed no right axis deviation. The appearance on straight X-ray was of a mottled opacity in the apical and subapical segments of the upper left lobe composed of rather worm-like streaks tending to radiate upwards and outwards from the hilum. That these were vascular shadows was clearly shown on angiocardiography where most of the dye was shunted through the opacity, the arterial elements being filled in two seconds and the larger venous channels in the third second. At the moment of reporting this case, for which we are indebted to Dr Hampson, Mr Brock has agreed to operate, but this has not yet been done.*

DISCUSSION

It will be seen that these two cases present a clear-cut clinical picture, but it is only of recent years that

* Mr Brock successfully removed the left upper lobe containing the arteriovenous aneurysm on February 10 1949; there was a large collateral circulation from the bronchial arteries. Following operation cyanosis has disappeared and his physical capacity has increased.

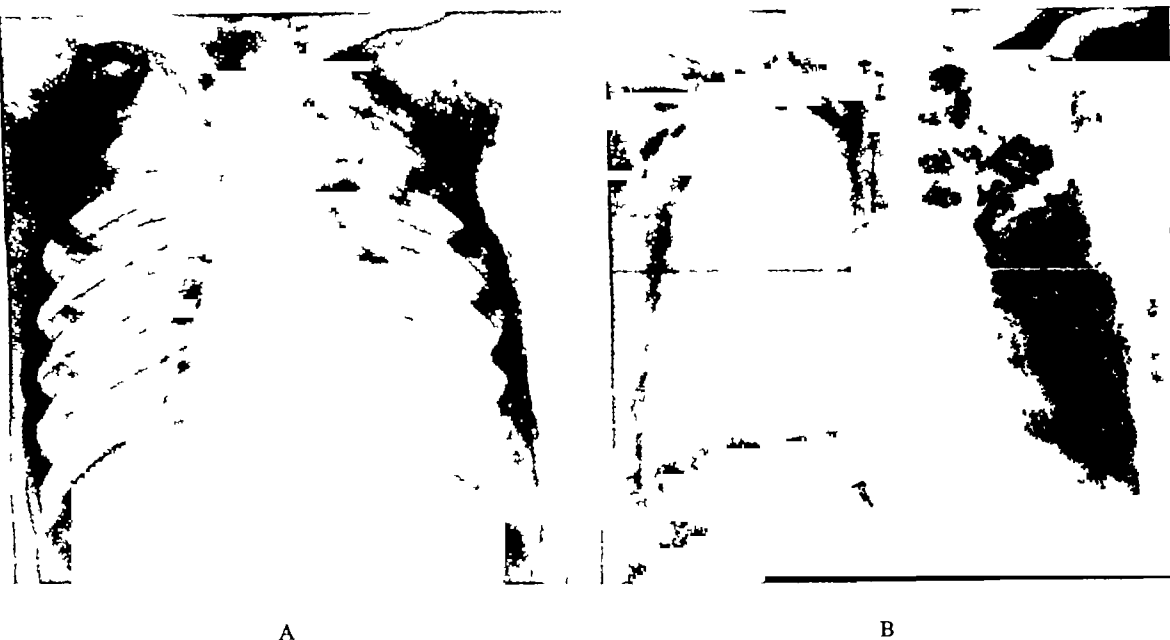


FIG 6—Case 2, aged 13 (A) Straight X-ray showing streaky radiating shadows in left upper lobe (B) Angiocardiogram at 2 sec from injection of dye, showing the vascular nature of the shadow in the left upper lobe

it has been recognized. In 1936 Bowers reported a fatal case in a child of two days old, and in 1938 Rodes described the clinical picture in an adult. The first reported case treated surgically was in 1942 by Hepburn and Dauphinee, where the aneurysm was removed and the condition cured. We have found 29 cases so far reported and although they are not all described in full detail a reasonable survey can be made, to which we are adding these 2 further cases.

With the exception of the case of Bowers (1936), one mentioned by Sweet in the discussion following Maier's (1948) paper, and our second case, the diagnosis has been made in adults, the average age of 26 cases being 29, with extremes of 16 and 51. Nevertheless it appears that the condition has in most cases been present in childhood, for in 15 cases where the onset of cyanosis is given, it is since birth or early childhood in 8, between the ages of 6 and 14 in 4, and in only 3 is it stated to have begun in adult life. Both sexes are affected but in the reported cases there is a predominance of males. A family history has been suggested in five instances, of which two seem certain, and Goldman's two cases of arteriovenous aneurysm in the lung (1943 and 1947) were brothers.

Cyanosis is the most important feature and its absence was noted in only two cases, that of Duvour and Picot (1939) who had many visceral angiomas

and died of pneumonia aged 16, and Whitaker's (1947) second case, aged 33, where there was no disability. Maier (1948) makes no mention of this point in his case. It is only in these three that absence of "clubbing" is specifically mentioned, and with a few exceptions where no note is made it is, as might be expected, a feature that goes hand in hand with the degree of cyanosis. Pulmonary osteoarthropathy is reported once by Adams (1944). Polycythæmia in the cyanosed cases is a constant finding with an average of 7.3 million in red cells, the highest figure being 11.4 million in Goldman's (1943) case, the colour index tends to be low, a common finding in polycythæmia. It is likely, however, that although cyanosis is almost a constant finding in reported cases, both the increasing recognition of this condition and the increase in routine X-rays of the chest will reveal earlier cases before cyanosis develops.

It is not surprising that the combination of cyanosis, clubbing, and polycythæmia usually occurring from an early age, often suggests a diagnosis of congenital heart disease, noteworthy exceptions to this misdiagnosis being Smith and Horton's (1939) and Goldman's (1947) cases, both in adults, who had been under treatment for polycythæmia rubra vera. Nothing, however, is found amiss with the heart either on clinical or radiological examination, the sole abnormalities recorded being

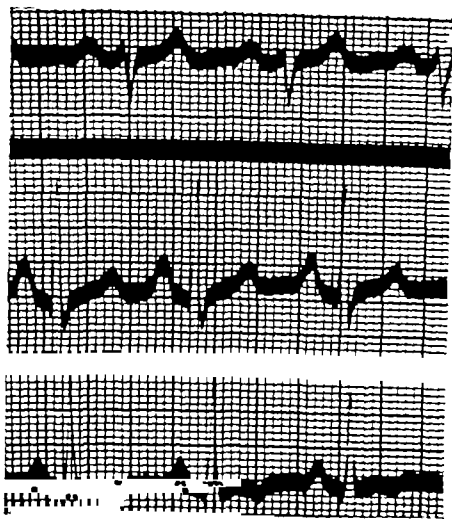


FIG 7—Case 1 Standard leads showing marked right axis deviation with large P waves and inverted T III

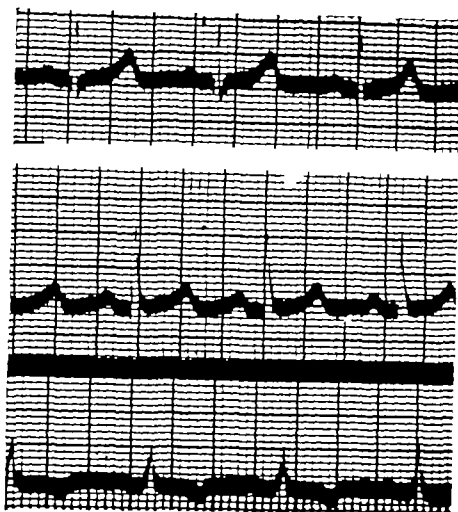


FIG 8—Case 2 Standard leads showing no right axis deviation

by Sisson *et al* (1945) with a systolic murmur and enlargement, by Alexander (1945) with enlargement to the left without a murmur, and by Lindgren (1946) whose second case had mitral stenosis. Nor, with the possible exception of Sisson's (1945) case, is there any history of these cases developing heart failure, and though congestive failure was suspected in our first case the cardiac catheterization showed that this was not present. That arteriovenous shunts in the lesser circulation produce so little effect on the heart is in marked contrast to the well recognized strain exerted when similar shunts occur in the systemic circulation. It would, therefore, seem that the combination of cyanosis, clubbing, and polycythæmia, with normal findings on examination of the heart, should suggest the possibility and search for arteriovenous aneurysm of the lung.

The main symptom of the condition is dyspnoea which has not preceded the cyanosis in any patient. The degree of disability in many has been slight, particularly considering the degree of cyanosis, and in only 7 of the 29 reported cases would it appear to have been marked. In this respect our first patient appears to have been an unusually severe and late example of the condition. Attacks of dizziness and faintness, not amounting to loss of consciousness, such as were experienced in our first case, have been noted in others. They are presumably due to the increased blood viscosity in polycythæmia and are similar to the attacks so common in *morbus cæruleus*, though cerebral

thrombosis has not occurred. Alexander (1945), however, reports a case of a patient with marked polycythæmia who died of coronary thrombosis. Epistaxis is not uncommon and occurred frequently in our first patient, once necessitating admission to hospital. This is not unusual in subjects of polycythæmia from any cause, but might well be due, in this particular condition, to angiomata in the nasal mucosa, unfortunately we omitted to examine this site, either in life or post-mortem. Hemoptysis is reported, and was the cause of death in Rodes (1938) case, and Lindgren's (1946) third case had been diagnosed and treated as pulmonary tuberculosis on account of this symptom.

In contrast to the negative findings on clinical examination of the heart, a murmur in the lungs, usually systolic but occasionally with a diastolic component, was found in 14 of 23 cases where this sign is mentioned. Similarly in 19 cases where the point is made, associated lesions in other parts were found in 12, the commonest site being on the lips. These two signs, therefore, afforded strong confirmatory evidence of the diagnosis of arteriovenous aneurysm of the lung.

The clinical diagnosis is confirmed by radiology and in no case has a straight X-ray failed to show the lesion in the lung. No doubt in many instances, as in ours, the finding of a shadow away from the heart has been the finger pointing to the answer in a puzzling clinical problem. These are variously described as rounded, with defined or with irregular edges, wormlike, or as an extension of the hilar

vascular pattern pulsation may be seen and calcification had developed in our first case. Tomography will clarify and localize, and kymography may show pulsation not visible or established by cardioscopy, but the angiocardigram is most helpful not only in establishing the vascular nature of a doubtful shadow but in outlining aneurysms close to the mediastinum or hilum or obscured by the heart. Though the experience of Sisson *et al* (1945) whose case died as a result of this investigation, must be remembered an angiocardigram was amply rewarded in our first case by showing two additional shadows not seen on the straight X-rays or on screening. As multiple shadows have occurred in about half the cases, this investigation would appear to be necessary if surgical intervention is contemplated.

Investigations of the circulatory dynamics have not been common. The circulation time in our first case was normal, which is in accordance with the findings of Makler and Zion (1946) and of Watson (1947). The percentage of blood passing through the shunt was estimated by Maier (1948) to be 58, compared with 25 to 30 in one of Lindgren's (1946) cases and the 80 in our first case. Normal intracardiac pressures were found on catheterization in our case as in Maier's (1948) but unlike our very high figure of 10 to 20 litres a minute, the cardiac output was normal. The increased blood volume which we record was found in all the 8 other estimations made. It is due to the increased cell volume, the plasma volume being unaffected, a distinction from arteriovenous aneurysms in the systemic circulation where both cell and plasma volume are increased with a normal hæmatocrit reading.

The natural course and prognosis of a condition so recently recognized and so readily subjected to surgery is not easy to estimate. From the reported cases it is clear that there is steady, though often slow progression from cyanosis alone, the first sign of a lesion of any size, to symptoms of breathlessness, to restricted activity, and in a few cases to complete disability. It must be remembered that cyanosis alone is disfiguring in the developing child or young adult and there are associated hazards from vascular accidents due to the polycythæmia or the lesion itself. In the 29 cases we have found, 5 died: one from a hæmoptysis at 25 (Rodes), one aged two days from hæmorrhage through the pleura (Bowers), one from coronary thrombosis at 41 (Alexander), one case, not cyanosed, from pneumonia at 16 (Duvoir), and one aged 45, a severe case, as the result of angiocardigraphy (Sisson). While the average age of the group is 29, and many had little disability except the cyanosis—notably Smith and Horton's case of a "blue

baby' who at 46 had only some dyspnoea—there is no case older than 51. It would therefore appear that in those with lesions of any size, where cyanosis is of necessity present, the expectation of life is diminished, though up to the age of 30 the hazards are not great. This would suggest that in these, operation, if it is a reasonable risk, should certainly be contemplated, for if successful, it would mean a cure.

Even allowing for unsuccessful cases which might not so readily be reported, the results are certainly encouraging. Five of the cases died and 19 of the remaining 24 cases had operations. There were 2 fatalities, to which we now add another. In one where the operation is not described, the disappearance of cyanosis is noted as slow, but the others—three with local excision, the remainder with lobectomy or pneumonectomy—are reported as cures although post-operative observations are minimal and follow-up necessarily short. In arteriovenous aneurysm of the lung where cyanosis is present it would seem therefore that operation is not only indicated but is a reasonable risk. We know that children stand thoracic operations better than adults so that it is important to make the diagnosis at an early age. In those where the condition is recognized without cyanosis—and the quickening appreciation of it will probably reveal cases where an obscure lung shadow is the only finding—the need for surgical intervention would appear small. Whitaker's second patient who refused operation was one of these, and it is by following these types of cases that we shall get a wider appreciation of the natural course of a condition, possibly by no means rare, which so far has been diagnosed only in its more severe degrees.

SUMMARY

Two cases of arteriovenous aneurysm of the lung are described and discussed with 29 cases previously reported. A clear clinical picture, which has only been recognized in the last ten years, is seen, and the condition is by no means rare. Cyanosis from childhood or early adult life, with clubbing and polycythæmia are the most important features. Physical signs in the heart are uncommon but a murmur may be heard in the chest, corresponding to the invariable finding of an opacity in X-ray of the lungs. Associated vascular lesions in skin, mucous membranes, and particularly the lips are common. The cyanosis is slowly progressive and is followed by dyspnoea, restricted activity, and eventually incapacity. Hazards to life are from anoxæmia, polycythæmia, and hæmorrhage from the aneurysm, rather than from heart failure. The

commonest misdiagnosis is congenital heart disease when cyanosis develops in early life, as is common, but it may also be mistaken for polycythæmia rubra vera if cyanosis first develops in adult life, or pulmonary tuberculosis when hæmoptysis occurs with the undiagnosed X-ray opacity

It is successfully treated by removal of the aneurysm, by lobectomy or pneumonectomy

Surgery is a reasonable risk and indicated in those with lesions large enough to cause cyanosis. The importance of early diagnosis and surgical intervention at an appropriate stage in the disease is stressed

We are indebted to the numerous colleagues at Guy's Hospital, mentioned above who co-operated in the investigation and treatment of these two cases

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THE HEART RATE WITH EXERCISE IN PATIENTS WITH AURICULAR FIBRILLATION

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In a previous article (Knox, 1940) an accurate method of recording the changes in heart rate during exercise was described, and results were given for normal subjects performing a brief light step-test. This technique has now been applied to patients with auricular fibrillation. The present series consists of twenty-two tracings from thirteen ambulant patients with fibrillation.

The standard exercise was five ascents of two steps each ten inches high, the rate of stepping being 96 a minute. The exercise began and ended in the sitting posture and its total duration was about twenty seconds. The heart beats were electrically recorded on a smoked drum throughout exercise and were counted in five-second periods to the nearest tenth of a beat.

The clinical condition of the patients with fibrillation was classified as good, fairly good, fair, or poor on the basis of the functional capacity classification of the American Heart Association (1926). This was called the patients' "Exercise Tolerance Group". In addition, the patients were also grouped according to whether they were receiving digitalis or not.

Full details of the method of calculating the various heart rate indices were given in the previous article and only a summary need be given here.

The initial rate is the heart rate averaged over the ten seconds immediately preceding exercise.

The maximum rate is the highest rate observed during exercise averaged over a five-second period.

The acceleration of the heart rate is calculated by subtracting the rate in the five seconds immediately preceding exercise from the maximum rate, and dividing the result by the time taken to reach the maximum rate.

The post-exercise rate is the heart rate averaged over a thirty-second period beginning five seconds after exercise ends.

RESULTS

The heart-rate indices The figures for the various heart-rate indices of the fibrillation cases in the different 'Exercise Tolerance Groups' are shown in Table I. For comparison, the mean results for 100 normal subjects (75 men and 25 women) are also included in this table. It can be seen that there was no correlation between any of these heart rate indices and the patient's clinical condition. This was not unexpected, as the number of patients in each group is very small and in addition the completely irregular ventricular rhythm present in fibrillation produces sudden arbitrary changes in heart rate in the successive five-second intervals counted. Certain general characteristics, however, can be seen in Table I.

Apart from the single case with good tolerance the maximum rates reached during the step-test were much higher than in the normal subjects. This was also true for the percentage and actual increases over the initial rates, and for the post-exercise rates.

The curve of heart rate during exercise Fig 1 shows the mean curves of heart rate during exercise for the different tolerance groups in all the fibrillation patients who were on digitalis. For comparison, the mean curve of the normal subjects is also included in the figure. Two of the curves (fairly good and fair) show a distinct fall in heart rate during the first five seconds of the exercise, a phenomenon that is of course never seen in normal subjects. In general, compared with the normal curve, the acceleration immediately after the beginning of exercise in the digitalized patients with fibrillation is less, but later during the exercise great acceleration occurs, reaching a higher value than in the normals. Thus in Fig 1 all the fibrillation curves show a steeper slope in some portion of their course.

TABLE I

Index	Mean results in 100 normal subjects	Auricular fibrillation patients grouped by estimate of their exercise tolerance					
		Good	Fairly good	Fair		Poor	
		on digitalis (1 case)	on digitalis (2 cases)	on digitalis (2 cases)	not on digitalis (1 case)	on digitalis (4 cases)	not on digitalis (3 cases)
Initial rate (beats/min)	87	67	116	96	136	100	116
Maximum rate (beats/min)	131	130	185	151	235	155	182
Acceleration of heart rate (beats/min /sec)	2.9	2.3	2.2	2.8	6.0	3.1	2.3
Percentage increase on initial rate	53	95	60	59	78	59	64
Actual increase in beats/min	44	63	69	56	100	56	65
Post exercise rate (beats/min)	93	104	140	132	176	135	165

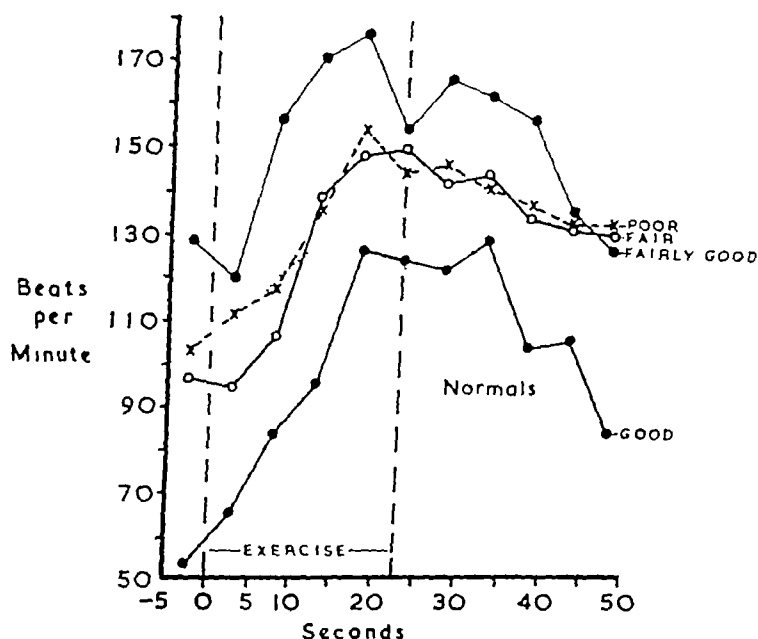


FIG 1—Auricular fibrillation patients on digitalis (Series C). Graphs of mean heart rates before, during and after the standard step test in patients classified into their different 'tolerance groups'. The dotted line shows the mean curve for normal subjects.

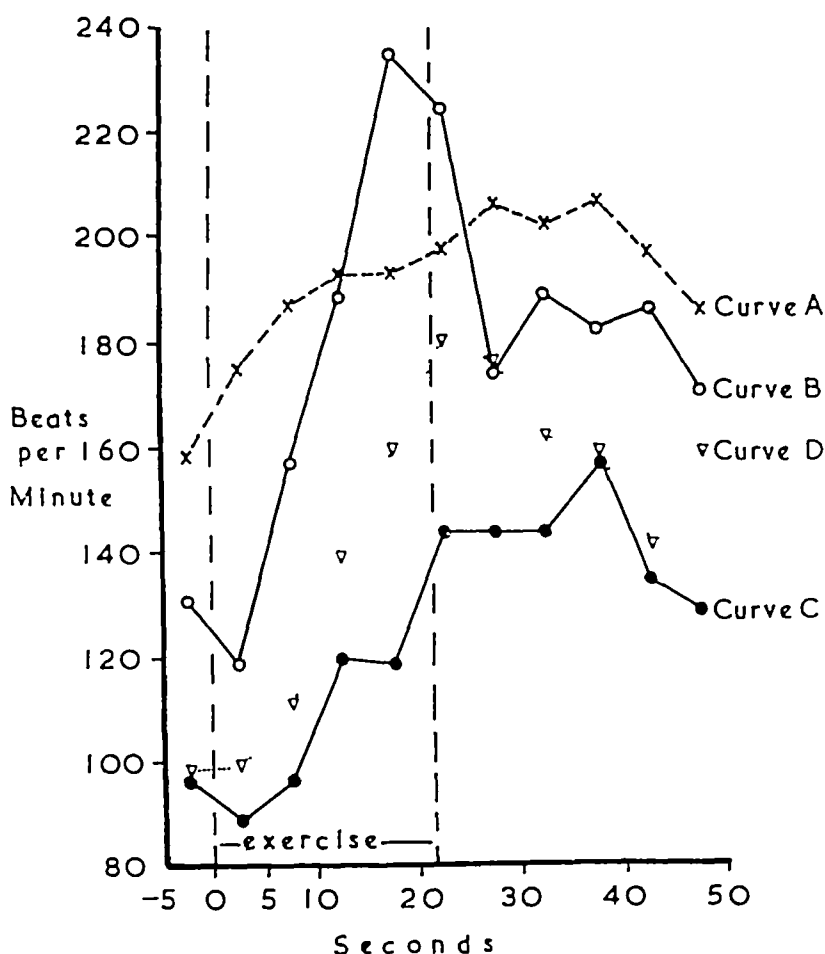


FIG 2—Auricular fibrillation patients not on digitalis (Series C) Graphs of heart rate before, during and after the standard step test in four patients
Curves A, B, C, and D are each from a separate patient

than does the normal curve. This sudden delayed acceleration was very characteristic of those with fibrillation. It will also be seen that after the end of exercise the heart rate falls very slowly compared with the normal, especially in the poorer tolerance groups.

The curves of heart rate during the step test in four patients with fibrillation who were not on digitalis are given in Fig 2. In general they show the same characteristics as the digitalized patients, these include the drop in rate at the beginning of exercise (in two cases), the delayed acceleration (in three cases) and the continuation of a high heart rate after the end of exercise. Curve B, from a patient with mitral stenosis and fair tolerance has the highest maximum rate reached by any patient, 235 beats a minute averaged over a five-second

period. A portion of the actual tracing is given in Fig 3. It is surprising that such an extreme frequency was reached during a very mild exercise lasting only twenty seconds in a patient who could get about reasonably well. In both the digitalized and non-digitalized groups the curves of heart rate for the patients with "poor" tolerance did not as a rule show such high instantaneous values of acceleration as the other tolerance groups.

Variations in a single subject It might be expected that owing to the complete irregularity of the ventricular rate in fibrillation there would be very great variations in the shape of the heart rate curve, even in the same patient on the same day. Fig 4 shows three curves of the response of the heart rate to the standard step test performed at 15 minute intervals by the same patient with fibrillation. The

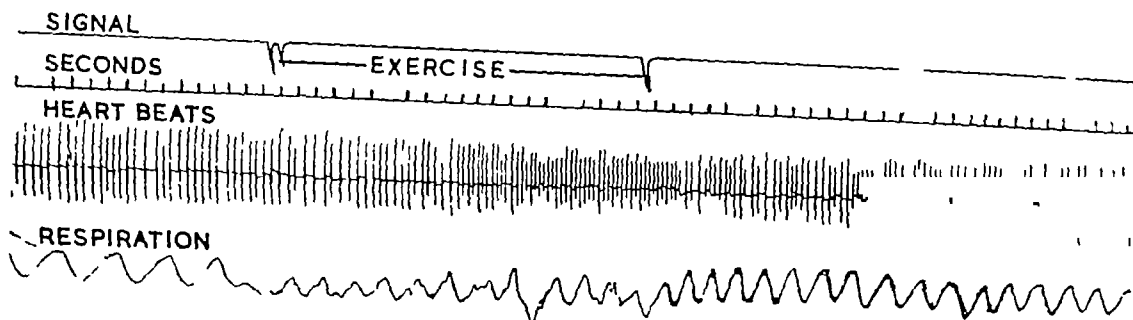


FIG 3—Kymograph tracing of heart beats from a patient with auricular fibrillation. Between the dips in the signal line the patient performed the standard two-step test. During the last half of exercise the extremely high heart rate of 235 beats a minute was attained.

Upper line —signal

Second line —time in seconds

Third line —heart beats

Fourth line —respiration

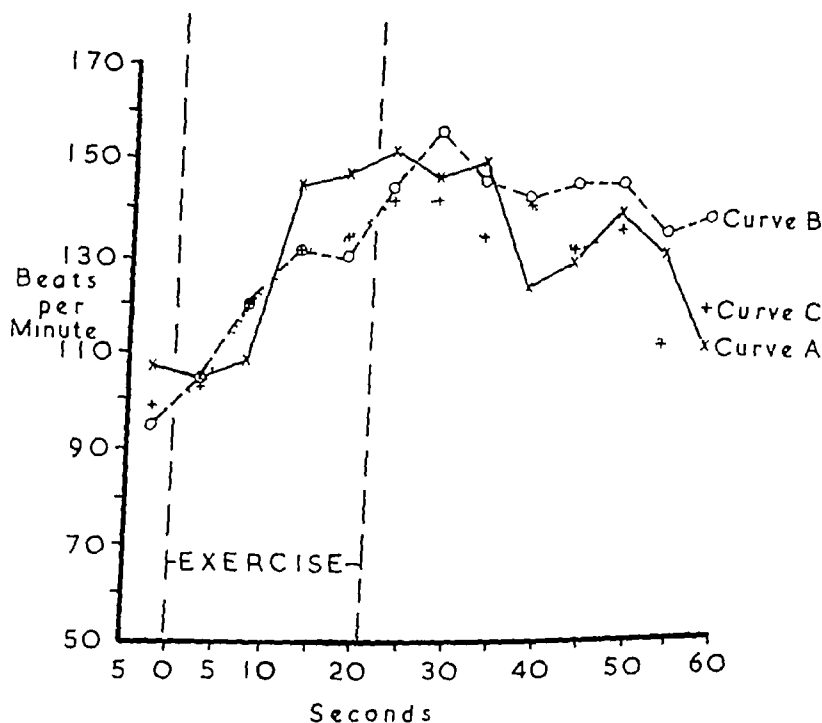


FIG 4—Effect of repetition of the standard step-test 3 times at 15 minute intervals on the heart rate of a patient with auricular fibrillation (Series C, Case C 49)

Curve A—Heart rate before, during, and after the standard step-test

Curve B—The same, 15 minutes later

Curve C—The same, 15 minutes after Curve B

curves were taken in the order A B C. The variation is greater than one would expect from a normal subject, but in view of the complete arrhythmia the general shape of the curve is remarkably well maintained. It can be seen that the acceleration tends to decrease in successive tests. Similar results were obtained from two other patients with fibrillation.

There was some evidence that this constancy in the shape of the heart rate curve of a given patient may persist over considerable periods of time even when the clinical condition has improved or deteriorated. The curves for two such patients during the standard step test are shown in Fig 5. Curve A is from a patient on digitalis whose tolerance classification was fairly good. Curve B is from the same patient one year later when the clinical condition had improved, the dosage of digitalis remaining unchanged. Curve C shows the response in another patient with fibrillation also on digitalis. His tolerance classification was poor and coupling of the beats was present. Curve D is from the same patient six months later when his general

condition had become worse, though the coupling was now absent. The figure demonstrates how the characteristic shape of the curve for each patient was maintained even after an interval of many months. Thus curves A and B both show a "peak" type of curve with marked oscillations after the end of exercise, whereas curves C and D are of the "plateau" type with a relatively smooth post-exercise fall in rate.

The improvement in the condition of the first patient is accompanied by a fall in the general level of his curve, whereas the reverse is true of the second patient whose condition had become worse. While this does suggest that the exercise heart rate curves of these patients may vary with their clinical condition, it is also possible that the variations were due to different degrees of digitalization, although the actual dosage remained constant in each case.

The tracing from which curve C was taken showed the actual onset of a period of coupling. A reproduction of part of this tracing is given in Fig 6, and the start of coupling in a burst of extrasystoles can

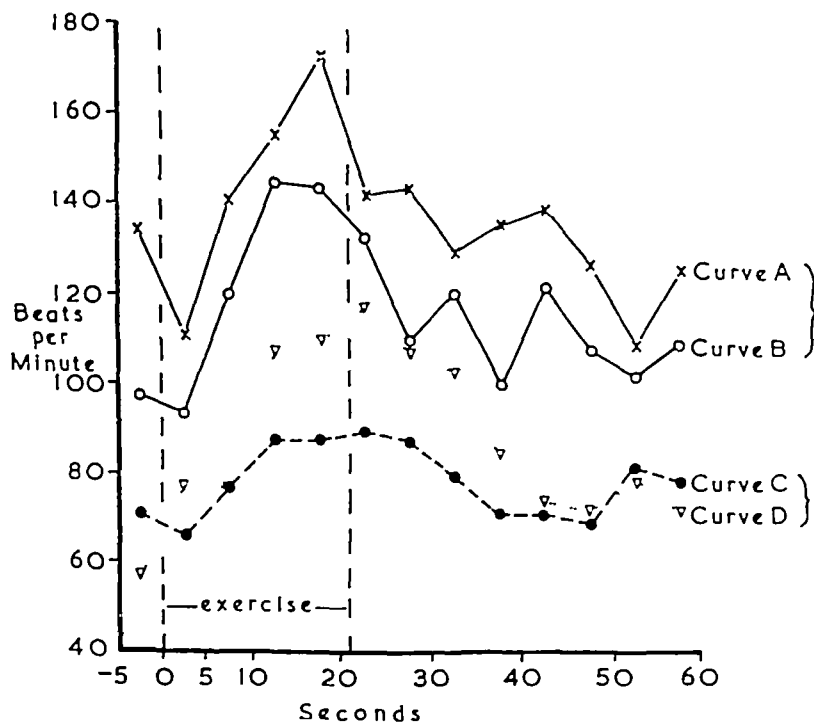


Fig 5—Curves of heart rate during the standard step-test in two cases of auricular fibrillation

Curve A—Heart rate before, during, and after the step-test

Curve B—The heart rate in the same patient one year later when the clinical condition had improved

Curve C—Heart rate before, during, and after the step-test in another fibrillation patient

Curve D—The heart rate six months later in the same patient as Curve C, when the clinical condition had deteriorated

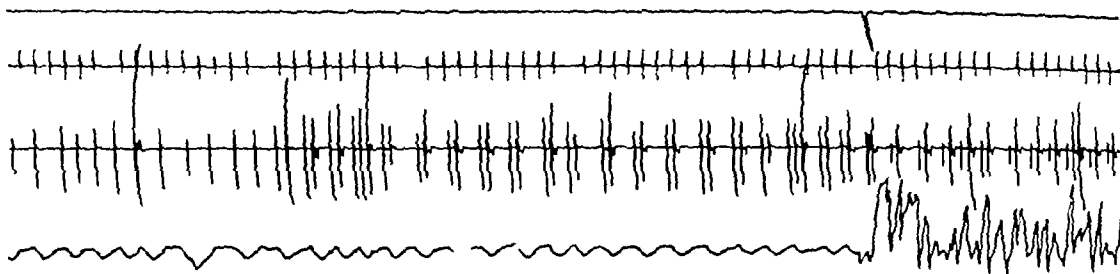


FIG 6—Kymograph tracing showing onset of a period of coupling in a patient with auricular fibrillation
The coupled beats begin after a burst of extrasystoles
The dip in the signal line indicates the beginning of the standard step-test

Upper line —signal
Second line—time in seconds

Third line —heart beats
Fourth line —respiration

be seen to occur about thirty-five seconds before the beginning of exercise. The coupled beats persisted throughout exercise and were still present when the patient left the laboratory some fifteen minutes later. This patient may have been of the type referred to by Goodman and Gilman (1941) in whom relatively small doses of digitalis may cause coupling, as he was receiving only 1 grain tab dig pulv once daily.

DISCUSSION

Blumgart (1924) was the first to attempt a quantitative estimate of the effect of exercise on the heart rate in cases of fibrillation. His exercise consisted in stepping twenty times on and off a chair, and the test was carried out by six controls and nine patients. Heart rates were recorded before and immediately after exercise, but no records were obtained during the exercise period. He concluded that fibrillating hearts respond to a given exercise by a disproportionate rise in ventricular rate and by a delayed return to normal. Both these findings are upheld by the present results as can be seen from Fig 1 and 2.

Blumgart also found that digitalis in ordinary doses failed to prevent the exaggerated response to exercise, in fact, the actual increase in rate was slightly greater under digitalis. In the present series it was not possible to compare the results in the same patients while on and off digitalis but it can be seen from Table I that the actual increase in heart rate of the digitalized cases was much greater than in the normals so that here also digitalis has failed to protect completely against an exaggerated rise in rate. The actual increase, however, in the non-digitalized patients is on the average consider-

ably greater than in patients of the same tolerance group who were receiving the drug. In general, if we consider the patients in the "poor tolerance" group of whom four were on digitalis while three were not, all the indices except the acceleration of the heart rate are higher in the non digitalized group. Digitalis, therefore, while failing to abolish the exaggerated increase in rate, did appear to diminish it to a considerable extent in my cases*. Although contrary to Blumgart's findings, this is in agreement with the results of Weinstein, Plaut, and Katz (1940) who showed that digitalis when used in large therapeutic doses lessened the ventricular acceleration due to a standard exercise test in ambulant fibrillation cases.

This is of interest in connection with the work of Gold *et al* (1939) who analysed the relative importance of the vagal and extra-vagal mechanisms by which digitalis slows the ventricle in fibrillation. They found the slowing caused by small doses of digitalis (up to about 60 per cent of the full dose) could be counteracted by large doses of atropine, so that it was largely due to vagal stimulation. When full doses of digitalis were given, atropine could no longer increase the ventricular rate and the slowing was then clearly due to extravagal actions of digitalis. The main extravagal action was said to be the increase in the refractory period of the A V conduction system.

In 1941 Modell, Gold, and Rothendler applied these results to the exercise acceleration of the ventricle in patients with fibrillation. They concluded that in the average case the exaggerated acceleration during exercise was due chiefly, if not entirely, to decrease in vagal tone, and that blocking the vagus by atropine accelerated the ventricles to the same maximum level as extreme physical

*Dr Maurice Campbell informs me that he (and no doubt other cardiologists) have been in the habit of teaching for years that the amount of digitalis needed for satisfactory control for a patient at rest in hospital is smaller than the amount often needed to control his heart rate when he is doing more and getting about outside the hospital. This fits in well with the experimental points.

exertion Extra-vagal digitalization with large doses prevented the exaggerated response to exercise through direct action on the A-V conducting system, in accordance with the theory They also pointed out that the ventricular rate at rest does not indicate whether digitalis has caused slowing by the vagal or the extra-vagal mechanism, but that there are two simple ways of detecting extra-vagal digitalization Either 2 mg of atropine may be given intravenously or the patient may be made to exercise If neither of these procedures raises the ventricular rate to over 100 a minute, then enough digitalis has been given to cause slowing by the extra-vagal mechanism Judged by the latter test, the extra-vagal mechanism can only have been prominent in one of the digitalized cases of the present series and there it was associated with marked coupling of beats It is noteworthy that this was the only case in which no delayed acceleration of the heart occurred and it is thus probable that a sudden diminution in vagal tone was the main factor causing the delayed acceleration

SUMMARY

In a series of thirteen ambulant patients with fibrillation the maximum heart rates reached during a short standard step-test were much higher than in normal subjects

No correlation was found between any of the heart-rate indices (initial rate, maximum rate, acceleration, percentage increase, actual increase, and post-exercise rate) and the clinical condition of the various patients

In spite of the complete irregularity of the ventricular rate, the response to exercise in a given patient was reasonably constant

In some cases a brief fall in heart rate occurred at the beginning of exercise

An almost constant feature was a sudden delayed acceleration of the heart rate commencing about twelve seconds after exercise had begun

Digitalis, while failing to abolish the exaggerated increase in rate, appeared to diminish it to a considerable extent

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CALCIFIED AORTIC VALVE

CLINICAL AND RADIOLOGICAL FEATURES

BY

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The object of this paper is to suggest that a diagnosis of calcified aortic valve can justifiably be made more often than is the current practice, and that the lesion can be convincingly demonstrated and permanently recorded by a special radiological technique not hitherto described

Rayger described the first recorded case of calcified aortic valve in 1697 he performed an autopsy, and sent one of the calcified cusps to Bonet, who described it in a publication dated 1700 A few years later Cowper (1706) described a man of forty with dyspnoea, angina, faintness and petrification of the aortic valve—"the valves of the Great Artery were Petrify'd insomuch that they could not approach each other" Further cases were reported by Vieussens (1715), Chevers (1842), Lloyd (1846), and Peacock (1868) Lannaec (1829) gives an excellent clinical description The earliest extensive pathological account is that of Hasse (1846)

In more modern times, calcified aortic valve was neglected until 1931, when Christian reported a series of 22 cases, and attempted to lay down clinical criteria for the diagnosis Interest was further aroused by the paper of Sosman and Wosika (1933) on radiological demonstration of valvular calcification, and there have been numerous American papers on all aspects of the subject up to the present time

The English papers on the subject, however, are extremely scanty Bennett (1930) reported a single case, and Gibbs (1935) described the pathology Campbell and Shackle (1932) give the lesion passing mention in a general survey of aortic disease The fullest account written in this country was that of Campbell (1937)

Frequency of the lesion Hall and Ichioka (1940) found 31 cases of calcified aortic valve in 4000 autopsies Dry and Willius (1939) found 23 cases in 2616 consecutive autopsies, and they further pointed out that calcified aortic valve constitutes 18 per cent

of all healed valvular defects The highest incidence of the lesion was that reported by Sophian (1945) who found 31 cases in 500 consecutive autopsies at the U S Marine Hospital He attributed the high incidence of the lesion in his cases to age, sex, and occupation Thus it appears that, although the available figures show a fairly wide range of variation, the lesion is undoubtedly quite common

While discussing the incidence of the lesion, it is interesting to note how infrequently aortic stenosis occurs *without* calcification of the valve cusps In Christian's series (1931) of 22 cases there was calcification in all but one, Dry and Willius (1939) reported 116 cases that came to necropsy, in all of which calcification was found, and 122 cases diagnosed clinically with radiologically demonstrable calcification This shows that calcification occurs early in aortic stenosis and is almost always present by the time of death or diagnosis

Unfortunately there are few figures available to show how frequently calcified aortic valve is diagnosed in life Blackford and Bryan (1936) found less than 50 reported cases, that had been diagnosed in life, up to 1936 Berk and Dinnerstein (1938) reported 16 cases, of which only 5 were diagnosed in life, while Reich (1945) reported 22 cases, of which 11 were diagnosed The later series show a much greater frequency of diagnosis than those prior to 1932 e.g. Margolis *et al* (1931) reported 42 cases, of which only 2 were correctly diagnosed in life

THE MATERIAL FOR THIS STUDY

This paper describes 14 patients suffering from "pure" calcified aortic valve, in whom the lesion was suspected clinically and proved on radiological grounds The table records the main facts concerning the patients

Of the 14 patients, 12 were men and 2 women Their ages ranged from 27 to 71, the average being a little over 50 Only 4 of the patients gave a

TABLE I
ANALYSIS OF FOURTEEN CASES OF CALCIFIED AORTIC VALVE

Clinical Analysis

Case number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Age	50	62	53	58	53	60	35	46	41	61	43	71	49	27
Sex	M	M	M	F	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	F	M	M
History of acute rheumatism	0	0	0	0	—	±	0	0	0	0	?	0	—	0
Cardiovascular symptoms	0	±	±	—	0	±	—	0	±	±	±	—	—	0
Dyspnœa	0	0	±	—	0	±	±	0	—	—	—	—	—	0
Angina	0	±	±	—	0	—	0	0	—	—	—	0	—	0
Syncope or dizziness	—	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	±	—	—	0	—	0
Œdema	0	0	0	0	0	0	±	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Clinical cardiac enlargement	0	—	0	—	0	—	±	0	—	0	—	—	0	—
Anacrotic pulse	0	0	0	0	0	0	—	0	0	—	—	0	±	0
Blood pressure (mm Hg)	130	130	110	120	140	200	130	155	120	150	120	150	100	135
Pulse pressure (mm Hg)	100	95	80	90	85	85	100	85	80	115	90	95	80	80
Thrill	0	0	—	0	0	—	—	—	—	0	—	—	—	—
Systolic murmur	—	±	±	—	—	—	—	±	—	—	—	—	—	—
Propagation of murmur to neck	+	+	—	—	±	—	—	±	—	—	—	—	—	—
Propagation to whole præcordium	—	0	0	0	—	0	—	—	0	—	0	—	—	—
Aortic second sound	0	0	0	0	±	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	—	—
Aortic diastolic murmur	0	0	0	0	—	0	—	0	0	—	—	0	—	—
Evidence of congestive failure	0	0	0	0	0	0	—	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Left axis shift or L V strain	0	±	0	±	0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wassermann reaction	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Peripheral arteriosclerosis	0	±	0	—	0	±	0	0	0	—	0	—	0	0

X-ray Analysis

Heart size	0	±	0	±	±	±	—	±	±	—	—	—	0	—
Calcification visible on screen	—	0	±	0	0	?	?	0	±	—	—	—	0	?
Calcification visible on overpenetrating X-ray	±	0	—	0	0	0	0	0	0	±	0	—	0	0
Calcification visible on tomogram	±	±	±	—	±	±	±	±	—	±	—	—	—	—

history of acute rheumatism, and in one of these it was doubtful. None of the patients gave a history of syphilis, and the Wassermann reaction was negative in all cases.

The symptoms of which the patients complained varied. Four had no symptoms referable to the cardiovascular system; of the other 10, 9 complained of dyspnœa, 8 of angina pectoris, 6 of syncope or dizziness, and 1 of œdema. One man complained of loss of memory and of the power of concentration.

The physical findings were as follows: clinical evidence of cardiac enlargement was present in 8 patients, peripheral arteriosclerosis was found in 5, and the pulse was thought to be anacrotic in 4. The blood pressure was rather low and the diastolic rather high, unless the former were modified by associated hypertension or the latter by aortic regurgitation. The pulse pressure ranged from

30 to 115 mm Hg, the average being 45 mm (see Table). In 9 of the patients there was a basal systolic thrill, and in all 14 a basal systolic murmur. The basal murmur was maximal in the second right intercostal space and was propagated to the root of the neck in all cases. In 8 of the patients the murmur was audible over the whole præcordium. The aortic second sound was audible in only 3 of the cases. There was an aortic diastolic murmur in 6 cases, but the presence of such a murmur did not bear any significant relationship to the height of the pulse pressure (see Table). Electrocardiography proved of no assistance in diagnosis and showed no characteristic features. 11 patients showed evidence of left axis deviation or left ventricular strain, and of these one showed left bundle branch block, one 2:1 A-V block and one the typical changes of anterior coronary occlusion. The cardiographs of the 3 remaining patients showed no abnormality.

Ten of the patients have been followed up for periods up to two years. One died of congestive cardiac failure soon after admission, and 3 died suddenly within a few months of discharge from hospital. Of the other 6 patients with whom contact has been maintained, one has developed severe dyspnoea and angina pectoris, the other 5 have remained unchanged.

ÆTIOLOGY

The ætiology of this condition is uncertain, and this investigation adds nothing to our knowledge of the subject. There is no evidence that the lesion is due to a disturbance of calcium metabolism (Bramwell and King, 1942) to focal sepsis as suggested by Thalheimer (1922) or to syphilis (Christian, 1931, Margolis *et al.*, 1931, Grant, 1933). Libman (1913) and Perry (1936) observed that subacute bacterial endocarditis may heal by calcification, and Cohen *et al.* (1940) described one case of calcified aortic valve that showed healed aneurysms of the hepatic artery with renal and splenic infarcts. But, in general, there is no history in these patients suggestive of bacterial endocarditis.

The two views most commonly held regarding the ætiology are that it is a form of atherosclerosis (Monckeberg, 1904, Sohval and Gross, 1936), or that it is an unusual manifestation of rheumatic carditis (Cabot, 1926, Karsner and Koletsky, 1940 and 1947, Hall and Ichioka, 1940). Allbutt (1898) first pointed out the low incidence of atheroma of the aorta in cases of calcified aortic valve, and this fact has been confirmed many times since (Clawson *et al.*, 1926, Scherf, 1938), Dry and Willius (1939) make a further observation that coronary atheroma is usually in inverse proportion to the degree of aortic stenosis.

The incidence of a history of acute rheumatism or chorea in this condition is variable, the lowest incidence (4 per cent) being in the series of Friedwald and Ewing (1938), and the highest (56 per cent) in that of Cabot (1926). In the present series 4 patients (28 per cent) gave a history of acute rheumatism.

The sex distribution of the disease is remarkable, whatever the ætiology. In favour of a rheumatic origin it has been argued that chorea, which is predominantly a disease of women, is rarely followed by aortic valve disease (Contratto and Levine, 1937, Clawson *et al.*, 1938), that rheumatic carditis is a less severe disease in men than in women, and that the mild attacks are most likely to pass undiagnosed, and to be followed by slowly progressive lesions of the aortic valve (Dry and Willius, 1939).

The age incidence is more suggestive of atheroma than of rheumatic valvular disease but cases have

been recorded in young persons, and the fact that the lesion is well tolerated may lead to its escaping detection.

Histological evidence has been of little value in elucidating the problem, chiefly because authorities disagree in regard to the criteria of what constitutes evidence of old rheumatic affection.

The only conclusion warranted by the evidence available is that some patients with calcified aortic valve have, in addition, rheumatic lesions in the mitral valve, that in many cases of calcified aortic valve, without mitral valve disease, there is a history of acute rheumatism, and that those patients without mitral disease or a history of acute rheumatism, have lesions in the aortic valve that are indistinguishable from those in the other two groups.

CLINICAL SYMPTOMS

Age and sex. In general the disease is one of men past middle life (Fothergill, 1879). The average age varies in different series from 52 years (Contratto and Levine, 1937) to 60 years (Friedwald and Ewing, 1938). The youngest case on record was a boy of 12 (Gautier, 1860).

The predominance of males is very striking. With the exception of Margolis *et al.* (1931), in whose series only 21 per cent were males, most series show a male incidence of over 80 per cent. This feature of the disease is difficult to explain. The suggestion that the more arduous physical life of the male, subjects the aortic cusps to greater trauma is not convincing. It seems more likely that the explanation lies in a difference in the natural history of acute rheumatism in the sexes.

Symptoms. Trousseau (1870) commented on the disparity between the mildness of symptoms and the severity of this lesion as demonstrated at autopsy. In this present series 3 of the 14 patients had no symptoms referable to the cardiovascular system.

Dyspnoea. This was the commonest symptom, occurring in 11 of the 14 cases, 2 (Cases 4 and 7) complained of dyspnoea at rest, the others only on exertion. None complained of nocturnal paroxysmal dyspnoea, which is remarkable in view of the burden thrown on the left ventricle by calcified aortic valve.

It is remarkable that the lesion may be of long duration and associated with gross cardiac enlargement without producing dyspnoea. This may possibly be explained by the slow development of the so-called 'compensatory hypertrophy of the left ventricle over a long period'.

Angina pectoris. The occurrence of angina was recorded in 1706 by Cowper whose patient complained of pain about the heart' and by Morgagni (1769). The discomfort experienced is

often atypical, conforming rather to the true etymology of the word several of the patients (Cases 10, 11, and 13) denied retrosternal pain but complained of a choking sensation on exertion. One man (Case 3) complained of a 'heavy' pain below the left nipple which was significantly related to exertion. In Cabot's series (1926), only 3 of the 9 patients with angina had typical distribution of pain. Levine (1945) also noted that the pain was often atypical, and that the history was elicited only by careful questioning.

Eight out of 14 patients in the present series (57 per cent) complained of anginal symptoms. The incidence of angina in other series varies from 7 per cent (Grant, 1933) to 60 per cent (Friedberg and Sohval, 1939). Case 4 had an attack clinically and cardiographically indistinguishable from coronary thrombosis, she did not die in hospital and no autopsy was obtained. Boas (1935) reports a patient with typical symptoms and electrocardiogram of coronary thrombosis, whose coronary arteries at autopsy were healthy, he suggests that the onset of left ventricular failure may simulate coronary thrombosis, as a result of a sudden fall in cardiac output, with reduced coronary flow.

The mechanism of angina of effort in this disease is not clear. There is rarely associated disease of the coronary arteries or their ostia (Boas, 1935, Reich, 1940, Contratto and Levine, 1937), nor can the occurrence of angina be related to aortic regurgitation. Although 3 of the 8 cases with angina had aortic diastolic murmurs, none had the peripheral manifestations of aortic regurgitation.

Friedberg and Sohval (1939) suggested that angina was due to the very high intraventricular pressure, which develops in systole with intense contraction of the ventricle, compressing the coronary vessels in a manner comparable to the blanching of the clenched fist. Levine (1945) made the ingenious suggestion that angina was due to the forcible ejection of blood into the aorta in systole, causing a suction action and leading to coronary emptying. But whatever the mechanism of angina may be in this condition, there is no doubt that calcified aortic valve is the valvular lesion above all others associated with that symptom, if luetic aortitis, which is not primarily a disease of the valve, be excluded.

Dizziness and syncope. Cowper's patient (1706) 'complained of great faintness' and this appears to be one of the commonest and most disabling symptoms of calcified aortic valve. Contratto (1940) states that 'dizziness and syncope help to distinguish aortic stenosis from mitral stenosis and aortic incompetence, in which these symptoms are very rare.

In the present series 5 patients complained of disturbances of consciousness varying from a transient loss of attention to complete loss of consciousness lasting for some minutes. Loss of consciousness was not accompanied by an aura, convulsions, or incontinence, and recovery was complete immediately, without disturbance of memory, speech, or motor power, and without paræsthesiæ or headache. Marvin and Sullivan (1935) and Scherf (1938), on the other hand, state that the attacks are sometimes epileptiform in character.

In some of our cases the attacks were related to exertion (Cases 1, 2, 9, and 11), a fact observed by Fothergill in 1879, but in others they occurred when the patient was at rest (Cases 10 and 13). Marvin and Sullivan (1935) related the syncopal attacks to exertion in all their 11 cases except 1, in whom the attack was post-prandial.

Mechanisms of disturbances of consciousness. It seems indisputable that the ultimate cause of loss of consciousness is cerebral anæmia, but the mechanism is obscure. Smith (1931) attributed it to insufficient left ventricular output in exertion, through a narrow aortic orifice. But in some cases syncope occurs at rest, and the occurrence of syncope is very variable, the amount of exertion which produces syncope one day having no effect on another.

There is no evidence that Stokes-Adams attacks are responsible for syncope, as the electrocardiogram between attacks shows evidence of heart block (2/1) in one case only (Case 11) this patient suffered from giddiness only and did not lose consciousness. Marvin and Sullivan (1935) induced an attack of syncope by exertion in one of their patients, and took continuous cardiographic tracings. At the onset of unconsciousness the heart rate was slow (50 a minute) and regular, the tracing showed nodal rhythm and marked depression of the origin of T II. A few seconds later ventricular premature beats appeared followed by simple paroxysmal tachycardia at a rate of 200 a minute. There were frequent changes in the position of the pacemaker after the subsidence of tachycardia. They concluded that loss of consciousness was due either to carotid sinus hypersensitivity, as described by Baker and Weiss (1935), or to diminished coronary flow during exertion, with a cardiac output so low as to induce unconsciousness. Carotid sinus hypersensitivity seems an improbable explanation. Contratto and Levine (1937) found that carotid sinus compression produced no effect in 19 patients with calcified aortic valve, who complained of disturbance of consciousness, and that observation has been borne out in the present series (Cases 10, 11, and 13). The most acceptable explanation so far put forward

is the occurrence of reduced coronary circulation with a marked reduction in cardiac output

Mental changes One patient (Case 10) complained of loss of memory and concentration sufficient to interfere with his normal activities

PHYSICAL SIGNS

Blood pressure The systolic blood pressure in the present series ranged from 100 to 200 mm the diastolic from 80 to 115 mm Hg. This bears out the findings of Contratto and Levine (1937)

The pulse and pulse pressure Lewis (1934) states "The outstanding feature of aortic stenosis is a small pulse, rising slowly to a delayed summit the condition should never be diagnosed without this sign" Such a view is no longer tenable McGinn and White (1934) found a plateau pulse in only 9 of their 236 cases. In the present series the pulse was thought to be characteristically anacrotic in 4 patients only (Cases 7, 10, 11, and 13) in whom the blood pressures were 130/100, 150/115, 120/90, and 100/80 mm Hg respectively. In 3 others (Cases 1, 2, and 4) in whom the pulse pressure was 30 mm or less, the pulse was thought not to be anacrotic. Pulse wave tracings, which might have been of value, were not obtained. In the present series the pulse pressure ranged from 30 to 115 mm, the average being approximately 40 mm. The pulse pressure presumably depends on the relative degrees of stenosis and regurgitation, and on the presence or absence of associated hypertension

Heart size Levine (1945) states that the heaviest hearts are those with aortic stenosis, although the largest silhouettes on X-ray examination are those with mitral stenosis. Christian (1931) found gross clinical cardiac enlargement in all his cases of calcified aortic valve, the average weight at autopsy being 680 g. Most authors agree, with the exception of Scherf (1938), who states that "cardiac enlargement does not occur until the lesion has been present for years, often several decades," and Cabot (1926) who found that the heart may be small, moderate, or large

In the present series there was considerable enlargement of the heart in 8 of the 14 cases, slight enlargement in 3, and none in the 3 others. In 8 cases the enlargement could be found on clinical examination

Thrill Nine of the 14 cases had a basal systolic thrill. Reported cases show great variation in the frequency of thrills in calcified aortic valve. Thus Christian (1931) regarded the thrill as an essential criterion, whereas in McGinn and White's series of 123 cases proved at autopsy, 25 per cent had a basal systolic thrill recorded. At the other extreme

Gibbs (1935) found a systolic thrill recorded in only 1 of 27 cases. It is apparent that the presence of a thrill depends on the intensity of the vibration in the heart, and on the distance of the palpating hand from the source, which may be increased by a thick chest wall or by the presence of emphysema. The low incidence of thrill in some of the series discussed from the viewpoint of pathology, such as that of Gibbs (1935), may be due to poor clinical records

The heart sounds *Systolic murmur* Typically there is a loud systolic murmur, loudest at the base, which is conducted to the root of the neck, more on the right than on the left, and sometimes to the cardiac apex. In this series the murmur was harsh and was propagated to the neck in all cases; in only 8 cases was it audible over the whole præcordium. In the series of McGinn and White (1934), all 113 cases had basal systolic murmurs, but the authors point out that in some of the cases which came to autopsy a harsh systolic murmur audible over the whole præcordium had, before death, been attributed to mitral valve disease. Cabot (1926) found that in 4 of his 28 cases, the systolic murmur was audible only at the apex

The murmur is not characteristic (Scherf, 1938), for a similar murmur may be heard in aortic incompetence and in luetic aortitis. Nor is its propagation significant, for this depends on the intensity of the murmur (Contratto and Levine, 1937)

Diastolic murmur Lewis (1934) requires an aortic diastolic murmur as well as an anacrotic pulse for the diagnosis of aortic stenosis, but that view is no longer held. In the present series an aortic diastolic murmur was heard in 6 out of 14 cases (42 per cent), and this inconstancy of the diastolic murmur is borne out in other series. Thus McGinn and White (1934) found diastolic murmurs in 53 per cent of cases, Contratto (1940) in 50 per cent, Cabot (1926) in 57 per cent, and Dry and Willius (1939) in 33 per cent

Aortic second sound On theoretical grounds, it seems unlikely that calcified aortic valve cusps could close with sufficient vigour to produce a second aortic sound. In the present series the second sound was inaudible in 11 cases and audible in 3 (Cases 5, 13, and 14), in whom it was of normal intensity. Contratto and Levine (1937) suggest that the audible second sound is really a pulmonary second sound. Scherf (1938) regards a weak or absent second aortic sound as helpful in distinguishing the murmur of calcified aortic valve from that of luetic aortitis and atheroma of the aorta, in which the sound is normal or accentuated. It may be said that whereas the absence of the aortic second



FIG 1—Case 1 Teleradiograph showing normal heart size and rounding of left cardiac contour, indicating left ventricular hypertrophy



FIG 2—Oblique radiograph of the heart in the cadaver
A represents the shadow of a lead strip in the aortic valve area
B represents the shadow of a lead strip in the mitral valve area

sound favours the diagnosis, its presence does not exclude it

Evidence of congestive cardiac failure In the present series one patient only (Case 7) presented with signs of congestive heart failure. Other authors have found the incidence much higher, for example, 26 of Cabot's 28 cases presented with oedema.

Disturbances of conduction There have been many reports of disturbances of conduction in this condition. Cowper's case (1706) had "an intermission of one stroke in three of the pulse," and Parkes-Weber (1897) and Allbutt (1898) described cases with heart block. There have been numerous electrocardiographic reports and an extensive survey by Dry and Willius (1939). The electrocardiogram is frequently normal. The abnormalities commonly found are left axis shift, T wave inversion, A-V block which may vary in degree in the same patient (Boas, 1935), bundle branch block, smaller degrees of intraventricular block, and, very

rarely, auricular fibrillation (Contratto and Levine, 1937).

Heart block has been attributed to invasion of the conducting tissue by an extension of calcification from the valve (Boas, 1935 and East, 1932). This may be so in some cases, but it would not account for intraventricular disturbances, nor for variable disturbances. Diminished coronary flow is probably the causative factor in most cases.

RADIOLOGICAL COMMENT

Postero-anterior X-rays of the chest in an "early" case of calcified aortic valve show no evidence of cardiac enlargement; the only change observed is "rounding" of the left lower border of the heart, indicating left ventricular hypertrophy (Fig 1). The aortic shadow is normal, but a slowly expanding pulsation of the aorta may be seen on the fluorescent screen. In the later stages of the disease, left ventricular enlargement becomes obvious, with increased transverse diameter of the heart.

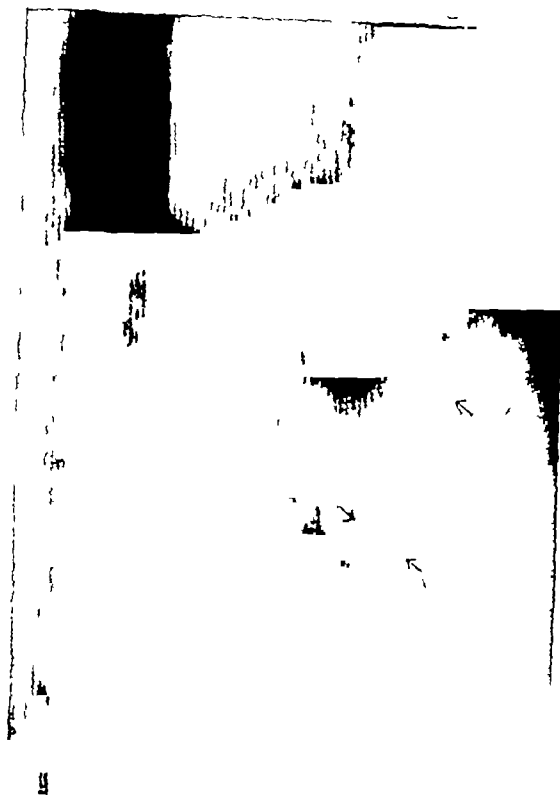


FIG 3—Oblique tomogram of the heart demonstrating the shadows of calcified mitral and aortic valve. The mitral shadow is projected below the aortic one.



FIG 4—Case 1. Oblique tomogram of the heart demonstrating the shadow of a calcified aortic valve.

Radiological demonstration of the calcified aortic valve is essential for accurate diagnosis. The two methods in common use are fluorescent screen examination and localized overpenetrating X-rays of the heart in oblique positions. Intracardiac calcification was demonstrated radiologically for the first time by Klason (1931), who diagnosed a calcified annulus fibrosus on the fluorescent screen but he failed to reproduce it on an X-ray film. Saul (1932) was the first to succeed in obtaining a permanent record of a similar case. Sosman and Wosika (1933) reported 12 cases of calcified aortic valve, and 13 cases of calcified mitral valve, in which they had observed the intracardiac calcification on the fluorescent screen. In their paper a number of important technical points are stressed, among them the need for adequate dark adaptation prior to screening, the use of minimum screen aperture, and examination in the oblique positions. Many workers have reported successful application of the technique described by Sosman and Wosika (Parade

and Kuhlman, 1933; Bishop and Roesler, 1934; Sparks and Evans, 1934; Sundberg, 1941, and Odquist, 1944).

In the present series demonstration of calcified valves by screen examination or overpenetrating radiographs was not possible in all cases. An attempt was therefore made to show the valves by tomography.

Tomography was carried out with the patient lying supine in the left posterior oblique position; the tube was centred 10 cm below the suprasternal notch in the midline. Three or four horizontal "sections" were taken at 1 cm intervals above and below an arbitrary plane which experience has shown should be 13 to 14 cm above the table top; some of these X-rays inevitably include both aortic and mitral valve areas.

The anatomical position of the aortic and mitral valves in X-rays taken in the left posterior oblique position was first ascertained in the cadaver, after lead strips had been placed at the level of the aortic



FIG 5—Case 3 Oblique tomogram of the heart the calcified aortic valve is demonstrated

and mitral cusps of a normal human heart (Fig 2) Le-Wald (1916) used a similar method to demonstrate the position of the heart valves relative to the anterior thoracic wall

Analysing the shadows cast by calcified heart valves in such tomograms, it is seen that the aortic valve is projected below and dorsal to the level of the pulmonary conus the mitral valve lies below the aortic and roughly in the same plane (Fig 3)

Slight variations in position are common, depending on the size of the heart and associated valvular lesions Sosman (1934) has discussed these variations extensively, the findings in the present series are similar If the aortic valve is heavily calcified a clearly defined shadow giving the appearance of a ring is seen (Fig 4 and 5) In other cases more vaguely outlined shadows are found in the valve area (Fig 6 and 7)



FIG 6—Case 11 Oblique tomogram of the heart demonstrating calcification of the aortic valve

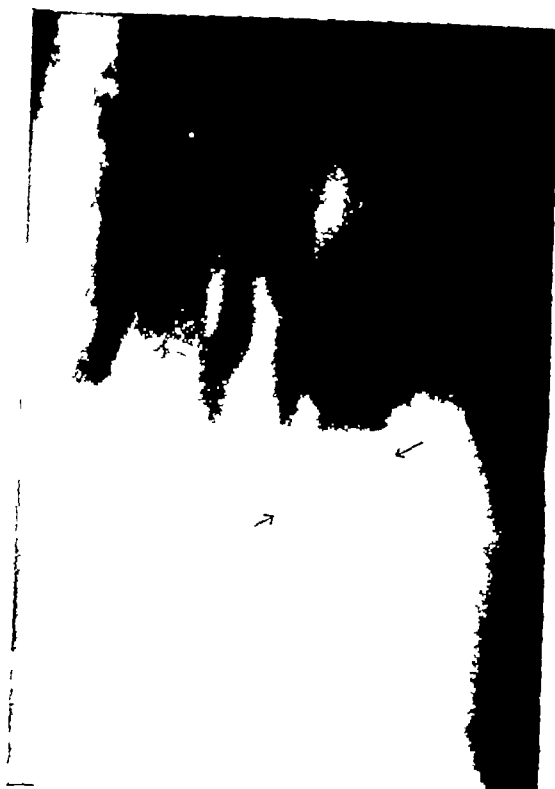


FIG 7—Case 2 Oblique tomogram of the heart demonstrating calcification of the aortic valve Two separate areas of calcification can be seen

In 6 of the cases reported here, calcification of the aortic valve could be seen clearly on the fluorescent screen in 3 there was a doubtful shadow that could not be identified with certainty in the other 5 cases screening failed to show any evidence of calcified valves In only 4 cases was reproduction of the calcified shadow on an overpenetrating oblique X-ray possible Tomography showed the lesion in all 14 cases

It appears, therefore, that tomography is the best method at present available for demonstrating and recording intracardiac calcification

PROGNOSIS

Allbutt (1898) states 'Aortic stenosis is a long disease, for life may continue under favourable circumstances until the aperture is reduced to the size of a crow-quill or less' That point of view still holds today (Scherf, 1938)

The prognosis varies with the age of the patient, and the presence or absence of symptoms at the

time of diagnosis If discovered in a fairly young person without symptoms, the prognosis is good, the average age at death being 52 (Contratto 1940) If, however, the patient is first seen with symptoms the prognosis is poor, the average expectation of life in the presence of congestive cardiac failure being 9 months (Contratto, 1940) of dyspnoea, 23 months, and of syncope, 9 months (Contratto and Levine, 1937)

In the present series 4 out of 14 are known to be dead Case 2 died within 6 months of the first attack of syncope, and within 18 months of the onset of angina at the age of 62 Case 4 died at the age of 58, having been known to have a heart murmur for 30 years, and with 5 years history of dyspnoea, and 3 years history of angina Case 6 died at the age of 60, after one year's mild angina and dyspnoea he had had acute rheumatism 40 years previously Case 7 died aged 35, after 6 months dyspnoea of effort, and oedema of the ankles for two days

Causes of death A certain number of cases die

from causes not connected with the cardiovascular system (as many as 40 per cent in the series of Reich, 1945)

Congestive cardiac failure Congestive cardiac failure is the commonest cause of death it is responsible for about 35 per cent of deaths in the series reported by Grant (1933), by Reich (1945) and by Contratto and Levine (1937) In contrast to mitral stenosis, where the patient may survive several attacks of congestive failure, a patient with failure due to calcified aortic valve rarely recovers (Contratto, 1940) One patient (Case 7) in the present series died of congestive failure after a very short illness

Sudden death After congestive cardiac failure, sudden, unexpected death is the commonest termination It is of interest that the first case recorded (Bonet, 1697) describes sudden death in a Parisian tailor who was apparently in excellent health Many other similar cases have been reported (Lloyd, 1846, Gautier, 1840 Trousseau, 1870 Wilks and Moxon, 1898, Grant, 1933, Lutembacher, 1921) The incidence of sudden death is variably estimated, the average figure being about 18 per cent, although in some series it is very much lower (Campbell and Shackle, 1933), and in others very much higher, as in the selected material of Marvin and Sullivan (1935) In the present series of the four patients who have died in a two year follow-up, three died suddenly

The features and cause of sudden death have been carefully studied by Marvin and Sullivan (1935) They find that death occurs in seconds rather than in minutes, resembling death from coronary thrombosis but no disease of the coronary arteries is usually found at autopsy Nor is the sudden death related to the degree of aortic stenosis They suggest a relation to heart size, pointing out the relative ease with which ventricular fibrillation is induced in large hearts The relation between syncopal attacks and sudden death is not constant, but is sufficiently frequent to suggest that both are

due to a sudden reduction in coronary blood flow with low cardiac output De Veer's suggestion (1938) that sudden death may be due to 'locking of the cusps with complete occlusion of the aortic orifice' is quite unconvincing

But, whatever the mechanism, sudden death is a frequent event in cases of calcified aortic valve, even though they are symptom-free, and therefore necessitates a guarded prognosis

Other causes of death A few patients have died of superadded subacute bacterial endocarditis (Contratto and Levine, 1937) and a few of coronary thrombosis (Boas, 1935)

SUMMARY

The clinical and radiological features of 14 cases of calcified aortic valve are described, with a method of demonstrating the valves by cardiac tomography

Twelve of the 14 cases were men, 2 were women Their ages ranged from 27 to 71 years, the average being about 50 years Four gave a history of acute rheumatism in the past

The symptoms complained of were dyspnoea, angina, syncope, oedema, and loss of memory, in that order of frequency Four patients had no cardiovascular symptoms

The only constant physical finding was a basal systolic murmur propagated to the root of the neck, other findings were absence of the second aortic sound (11 cases), an aortic systolic thrill (9 cases), an aortic diastolic murmur (6 cases), cardiac enlargement (8 cases), and low pulse pressure (7 cases)

The electrocardiograms of 3 of the patients were normal 11 showed left axis deviation, and of these one showed left bundle branch block, one 2 1 A-V block, and one anterior coronary insufficiency

Four of the 14 patients are known to be dead in a two-year follow up three died suddenly and one in congestive cardiac failure

Tomography was found to be a more successful method of demonstrating calcified valves than screen examination or overpenetrating oblique X-rays

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RIGHT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK AND CARDIAC INFARCTION

BY

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It is the object of this paper to investigate the modifications of the electrocardiographic pattern of cardiac infarction caused by the simultaneous presence of right bundle branch block, and to describe the cardiographic signs on which the diagnosis of infarction can be made in the presence of right branch block. The cardiogram of right branch block shows added changes characteristic of infarction, it differs in this respect from that of left branch block which often masks the evidence of infarction.

An analysis of tracings taken from patients with right bundle branch block but without infarction will be necessary for the study of cardiograms showing the combined lesion and will, therefore, precede it. All cases under review have the cardiographic pattern of the common variety of right branch block, cases of classical right branch block, characterized by a predominantly downward directed main deflection in lead I, a conspicuous R in lead II, and a tall R in lead III, with T waves in the opposite direction of the main deflection, were not included because of their rarity. A series of twenty-three patients were observed personally, the majority were seen in private practice, and their tracings were taken with a Siemens electrocardiograph, seven patients were seen at the Out-Patient Department of the National Heart Hospital, under Dr

William Evans. A search was made for reported cases to bring the total number of records up to 72.

RIGHT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK IN HEALTHY SUBJECTS

Right bundle branch block is not rare in healthy subjects and was found 7 times when 1445 healthy persons were examined by Wood, Jeffers and Wolferth (1935). The present analysis is based on 20 cases (see Fig 1 and Table, Cases 1-20). In 7 cases Q deflections were shown in lead I they were less frequent and never large in lead II. The upstroke of the main deflection and the beginning of the downstroke were slender and steep as in normal curves. The R-T segment showed no significant depression or elevation except for a gradual rise if the following T was high and set close to the QRS complex. The T waves were upright in leads I and II in all cases. The chest lead cardiogram of right branch block, made familiar through the work of Wilson and his collaborators (1934, 1944), was examined in 14 cases, and it included leads from the right precordial area in 11. Lead CR1 or V1 showed a bifid QRS complex, with two peaks above the isoelectric line, in some records the initial peak was of low voltage (see Fig 1D), there were no Q waves, the R-T segment was either level with the

TABLE OF CASES

No	REFERENCE	CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS
1	Own case	Healthy subject
2	Own case	Retinal arteriosclerosis, normal heart
3	Own case	Healthy subject
4	Own case	Bronchitis
5	Own case	Bronchitis
6	Own case	Healthy subject
7	Own case	Healthy subject
8	Own case	Paget's disease
9	Wilson <i>et al</i> (1934), Fig 1	Cancer of prostate
10	Wilson <i>et al</i> (1934), Fig 2	Pleural effusion
11	Wilson <i>et al</i> (1934) Fig 3	Arthritis
12	von Deesten <i>et al</i> (1934), Fig 1	Dyspepsia

TABLE OF CASES—*continued*

No	REFERENCE	CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS
13	von Deesten <i>et al</i> (1934), Fig 2	Extrasystoles
14	von Deesten <i>et al</i> (1934), Fig 3	Healthy subject
15	von Deesten <i>et al</i> (1934), Fig 4	Healthy subject
16	von Deesten <i>et al</i> (1934), Fig 5	Healthy subject
17	Wood <i>et al</i> (1935), Fig 1	Healthy subject
18	Wilson <i>et al</i> (1944), Fig 11	Ulcerative colitis
19	Wolferth <i>et al</i> (1947), Fig 1	Healthy subject
20	Goldberger (1947), Fig 62	Healthy subject
21	Own case	Hypertension
22	Own case	Aortic stenosis
23	Own case	Hypertension, cerebral hæmorrhage, uræmia
24	Own case	Stokes Adams syndrome and partial block
25	Own case	Aortic stenosis
26	Own case	Hypertensive heart failure
27	Stenström (1927), Fig 24	Heart failure
28	Wood <i>et al</i> (1935), Fig 2	Ventricular septal defect
29	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 4	Congenital heart disease
30	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 5	Mitral stenosis, fibrillation, hypertension
31	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 7	Fibrillation
32	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 8	Hypertensive heart failure
33	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 9B	<i>Heart failure</i>
34	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 10	Hypertension
35	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 12	Aortic stenosis
36	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 15A	Heart failure
37	Yater (1938), Fig 1	Mitral disease
38	Conneau <i>et al</i> (1938), Fig 1	Rheumatic fever
39	Katz (1941), Fig 389	Hypertension
40	Wolferth <i>et al</i> (1947), Fig 2	Angina of effort
41	Wolferth <i>et al</i> (1947), Fig 3	Stokes Adams syndrome
42	Own case	Recent cardiac infarction
43	Own case	Cardiac infarction 2 years ago
44	Own case	Cardiac infarction 2 months ago
45	Own case	Cardiac infarction 8 years ago
46	Own case	Cardiac infarction 5 years ago
47	Levine (1929), Fig 58	Recent cardiac infarction
48	Appelbaum <i>et al</i> (1934), Fig 28	Cardiac infarction
49	Master <i>et al</i> (1938), Fig 2	Recent cardiac infarction
50	Master <i>et al</i> (1938), Fig 7A	Recent cardiac infarction
51	Master <i>et al</i> (1938), Fig 8	Recent cardiac infarction.
52	Katz (1941), Fig 386C	Recent cardiac infarction.
53	Wilson <i>et al</i> (1944), Fig 29	Recent cardiac infarction
54	Wilson <i>et al</i> (1944), Fig 37	Recent cardiac infarction
55	Wilson <i>et al</i> (1944), Fig 38	Recent cardiac infarction
56	Goldberger (1947), Fig 79A	Recent cardiac infarction
57	Carlotti (1947), Fig 8A	Recent cardiac infarction
58	Curtis Bain <i>et al</i> (1947), Fig 17A	Recent cardiac infarction
59	Curtis Bain <i>et al</i> (1947), Fig 17B	Recent cardiac infarction
60	Soulié <i>et al</i> (1948), Fig 7	Recent cardiac infarction.
61	Own case	Cardiac infarction 9 months ago
62	Own case	Cardiac infarction some months ago
63	Own case	Cardiac infarction some months ago
64	Own case	Cardiac infarction 3 weeks ago
65	Levine (1929), Fig 9	Recent cardiac infarction
66	Levine (1929), Fig 58	Recent cardiac infarction
67	Evans <i>et al</i> (1937), Fig 11	Old cardiac infarction
68	Master <i>et al</i> (1938), Fig 1	Old cardiac infarction
69	Master <i>et al</i> (1944), Fig 1B	Recent cardiac infarction
70	Wilson <i>et al</i> (1944), Fig 39	Recent cardiac infarction
71	Wolferth <i>et al</i> (1947), Fig 4	Old cardiac infarction
72	Carlotti (1947), Fig 8B	Recent cardiac infarction

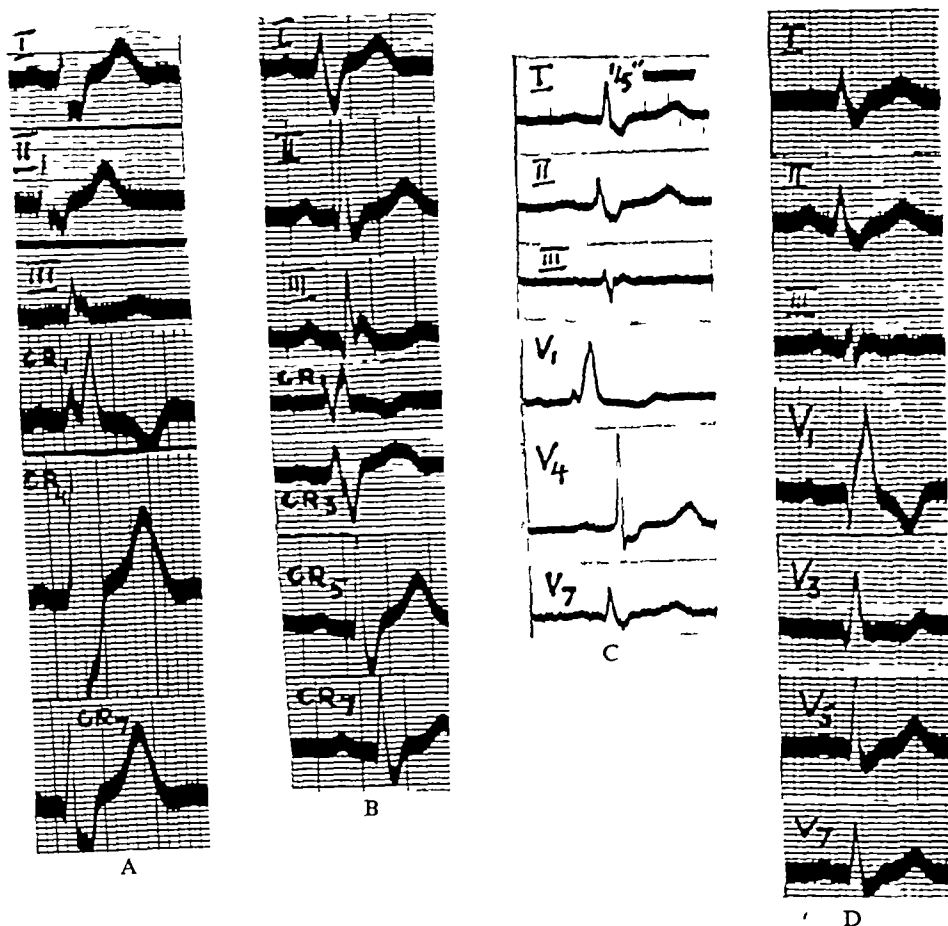


FIG 1—Right bundle branch block in healthy subjects (A) Case 3 (B) Case 7 (C) Case 1 (D) Case 8

isoelectric line up to the beginning of the T wave, or it started slightly below this line to merge almost immediately into the descending limb of the T wave, the T wave was inverted in all cases except one (Fig 1C). In left præcordial leads small Q deflections were frequent, an S wave was shown in all records and T was upright. As right branch block caused T inversion in right præcordial leads, so it tended to increase the voltage of T in left præcordial leads.

RIGHT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK WITH HEART DISEASE OTHER THAN CARDIAC INFARCTION

This group consisted of 21 cases (see Table, Cases 21–41). In the limb leads Q I and Q II appeared with the same frequency as in the previous group, the upstroke of R and the beginning of the downstroke of S had generally the same characteristics as those described for healthy subjects, but

there were 2 cases in this group with a QRS complex of low voltage. In left ventricular hypertrophy from hypertension or aortic valvular disease (Fig 2 and 3), the R–T segment often showed depression and a downward slant in lead I, or I and II, the T waves were upright in leads I and II in all cases, though occasionally of low amplitude. Left ventricular preponderance never caused T inversion in right bundle branch block, T inversion shown in normal intraventricular conduction in lead I from left ventricular preponderance was abolished with the onset of right branch block (Fig 2, B and C), and the amplitude of T waves low in normal conduction was increased in block. Chest leads were taken in 11 cases of this group, and included right præcordial leads in 7. In lead CR1 or V1, a small Q deflection was recorded once (Fig 2A), the QRS complex showed the bifid R already described, and the T wave remained inverted. In records from patients

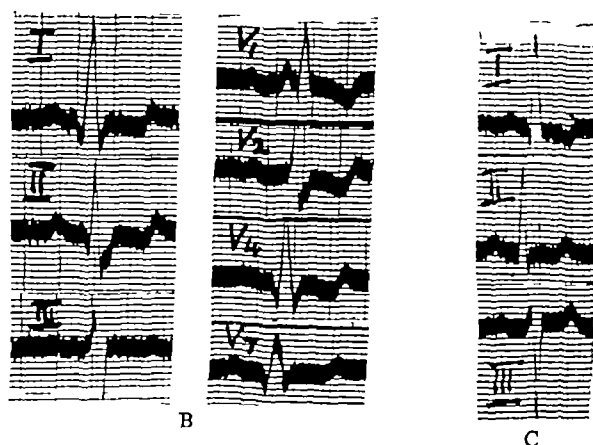
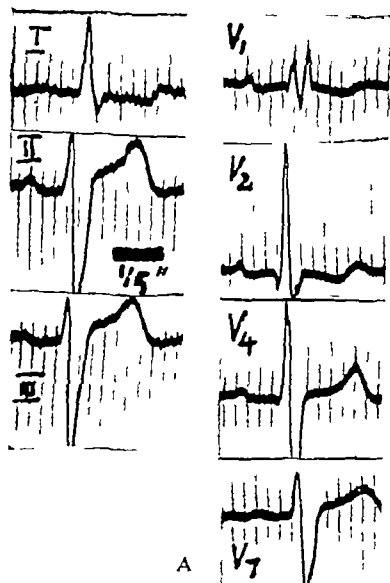


FIG 2—Right bundle branch block and left ventricular preponderance in patients with aortic stenosis (A) Case 21 (B) Case 24 (C) Case 24 in normal intraventricular conduction

with left ventricular hypertrophy, right precordial leads showed the same type of slanting R-T segment as did lead I, and the T wave was upright in some cases (Fig 2A and 3B). In apical leads and in leads from the left lateral chest wall, Q deflections were seen in 4 cases, and the deep S of right branch block was present in every tracing. In records with left ventricular preponderance, the R-T segment returned to the isoelectric line, or was even raised above it, as the leads were moved to the left of the chest (Fig 2 and 3). The T wave remained upright in all left precordial positions even as far left as V7. None of the patients with left ventricular preponderance were under digitalis treatment.

RIGHT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK IN CARDIAC INFARCTION

Nineteen cases of anterior infarction were collected (see Table, Cases 42-60). In the limb leads Q deflections in leads I and II were neither more frequent nor more conspicuous than in the previous two groups. A low voltage QRS complex was seen eight times, similar low voltage deflections were also recorded with heart disease other than infarction, four cardiograms showed a QRS complex of low voltage and w-shape. The R-T segment in lead I was of coronary type showing elevation and bowing, in 3 patients, in 8 other cases the R-T segment was elevated in lead I or II, but without bowing, and it was often followed by an upright T wave of normal appearance (Fig 4, A and B), this

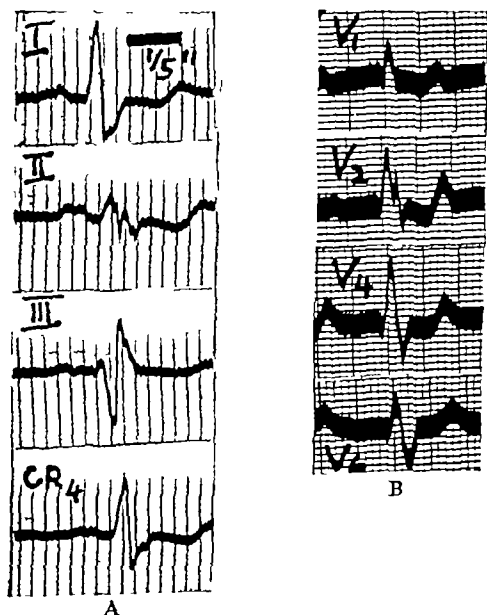


FIG 3—Right bundle branch block and left ventricular preponderance in patients with severe hypertension (A) Case 23 (B) Case 26

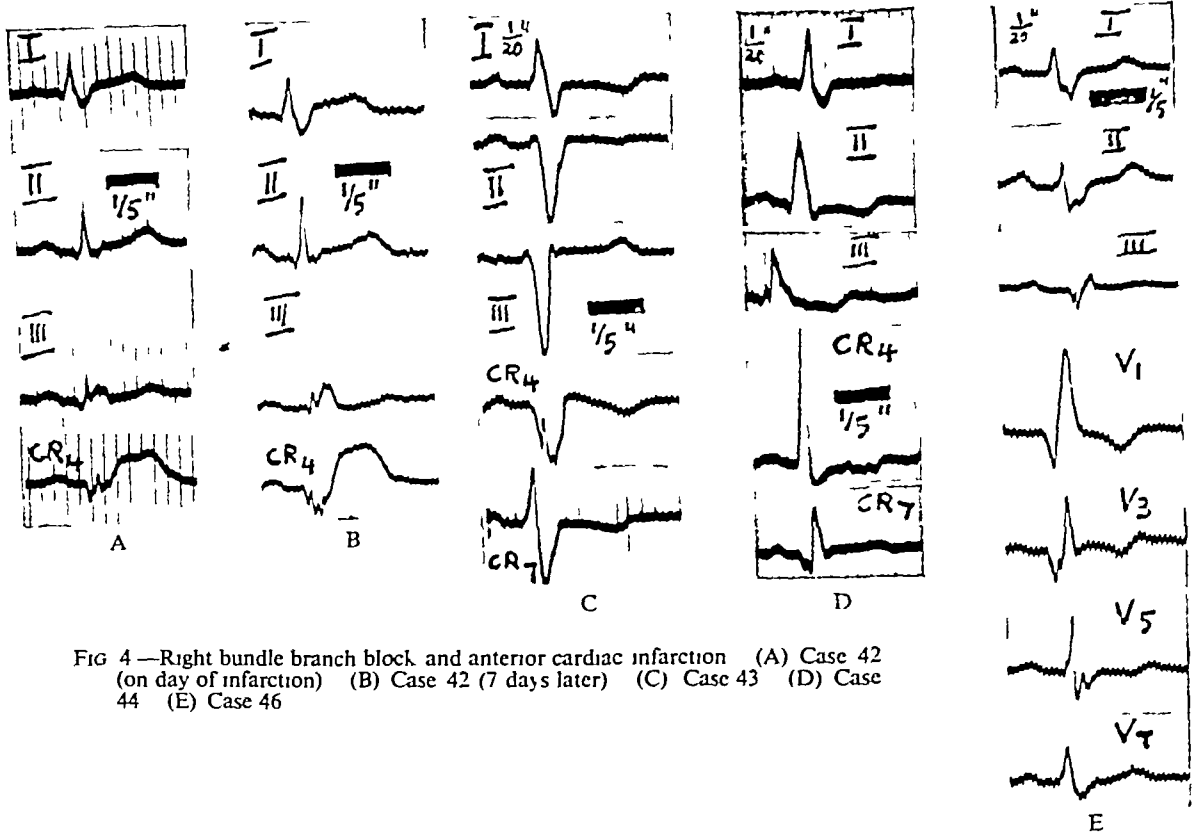


FIG 4—Right bundle branch block and anterior cardiac infarction (A) Case 42 (on day of infarction) (B) Case 42 (7 days later) (C) Case 43 (D) Case 44 (E) Case 46

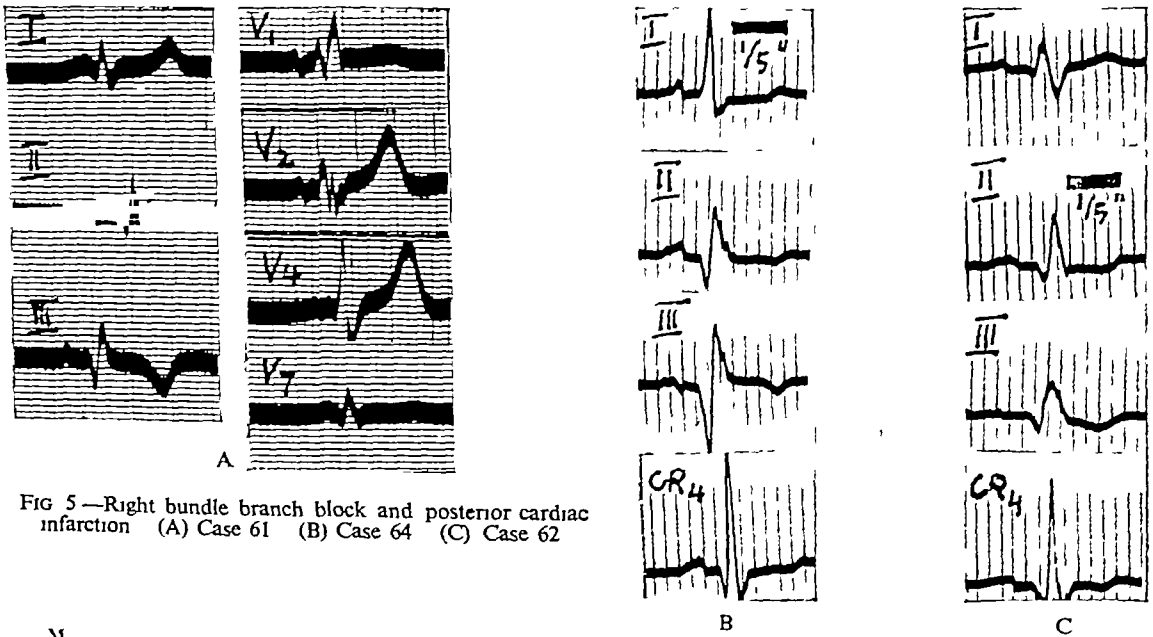


FIG 5—Right bundle branch block and posterior cardiac infarction (A) Case 61 (B) Case 64 (C) Case 62

form was presumably due to the tendency of the T wave to remain upright in right branch block, and so to prevent the development of typical "coronary" changes. In contrast to the previous two groups, T inversion was a frequent finding in the later stages of infarction, it occurred in lead I in 7 and in lead II in 5 out of 19 cases (Fig 4, C and D). A number of extrasystoles were seen and examined, but they showed no modifications indicating infarction.

Chest leads were taken in 17 of the 19 cases, and included right præcordial leads in 11. Lead CR1 or V1 indicated the lesion in 9 out of 11 cases in which this lead was taken, by showing a Q deflection followed by a late R with a single peak, recent cases also showed coronary R-T changes. Involvement of this lead seemed to occur more often in right branch block than in normal conduction and to be characteristic of the block, it was not due to a greater frequency of septal infarcts in records with bundle branch block as there was one patient (Case 54) whose cardiogram after infarction showed a characteristic Q in lead V1, only in block and not at other times, in normal conduction. The Q deflection or R-T changes of infarction extended to the apical lead in 5 patients, but were confined to right præcordial leads in 3 (Fig 4E), in such cases it was important to be certain of the absence of a small initial R wave (compare Fig 1D and 4E). Lead V1 remained unaffected in two records: in one the lesion was shown in the apical lead (Case 60), and in the other in a lead from the left lateral chest wall (Case 57). Six præcordial cardiograms did not include lead CR1 or V1, in five, changes of infarction appeared in the apical lead (Fig 4, A to C), and in one in lead CR7 (Fig 4D).

There were 12 cardiograms in this series showing posterior wall infarction (see Table, Cases 61-72). With the exception of one case of old infarction (Case 71), all tracings exhibited large and significant Q deflections in lead II (Fig 5), Q I was no more frequent than in any previous group, Q III and inversion of T III, though present in most records, were not significant as they also occurred in right branch block without infarction. T I was upright in all cases, but T II was often abnormal. A coronary type of R-T segment in lead II or III or both was seen in 4 cases. The chest leads analysed in this group included 9 records with apical leads, and 4 with more complete cardiograms. In 3 out of 4 cases, T was upright in lead CR1 or V1 (Fig 5A), apical leads showed Q deflections in 4 cases and R-T depression in recent posterior infarctions.

DISCUSSION

The preceding analysis has demonstrated a

number of modifications of the electrocardiogram of cardiac infarction caused by the simultaneous presence of right bundle branch block. Soon after the common form of right branch block was first recognized in America by Wilson *et al* (1934) and in England by Evans and Turnbull (1937), the combination of right branch block and infarction was examined by several authors, and especially by Wilson and his collaborators. For the limb leads, Rosenbaum *et al* (1944) reported the absence of significant Q deflections in lead I in dogs with experimental right branch block and anterior infarction. This observation was confirmed for the human cardiogram in this study. The even R-T elevation, without bowing and with an upright T following it, described here for leads I and II in anterior infarction with right branch block, was not previously discussed, although it was a frequent finding in various published tracings, it was also well shown in cardiograms of dog experiments (Rosenbaum *et al* (1944), dogs 66 and 71, and Ungvár, (1942)). Inversion of T in lead I and II is, of course, a classical sign of anterior infarction, and its significance in records with right branch block had previously been reported by Master, Dack, and Jaffe (1938). The modification of the T wave pattern noted in this study concerned the tendency of T to remain upright in all cases of right branch block, and especially also in cases with associated left ventricular preponderance. T wave changes, therefore, occurred at a later stage of infarction than in normal conduction, and the significance of T inversion, when present, was enhanced.

Wilson *et al* (1944) first described the characteristic præcordial cardiogram of anterior infarction, with a Q replacing the initial R of right branch block in lead V1, in the present series, right branch block caused no important modifications of the signs of infarction in apical leads or in leads from the left lateral chest wall, but lead CR1 or V1 indicated the infarct more often than would be expected in normal intraventricular conduction, this seemed independent of the septal extension of the infarcted area expected in many cases of branch block.

No modifications of the limb lead or præcordial cardiogram of posterior infarction have previously been reported. A number of cases here discussed showed upright T waves in chest lead CR1 or V1.

It is now possible to describe, with the help of the preceding analysis, the electrocardiographic signs diagnostic of infarction in the presence of right bundle branch block. The following signs were significant in the limb leads: a w-shaped QRS complex of low voltage and a coronary R-T segment with a coronary T wave in lead I, an even elevation of the R-T segment followed by a normal T wave

and, later, inversion of T in lead I or II or both. The w-shaped QRS complex could not be accepted as conclusive because of the difficulty of distinguishing, in a given case, this form and any other low voltage QRS complex without the w-shape. Inversion of T in lead II was significant except in cases showing the classical and rare form of right branch block. It was, therefore, of no value if R in lead III was conspicuous and taller than R in lead II, and if R in lead I also was of low voltage. Using these signs, the lesion was diagnosed in the limb leads in 16 out of 19 cases of anterior infarction.

This result is not in agreement with previous observations. Wood, Jeffers, and Wolferth (1935) first reported that right branch block may mask the signs of infarction in the limb leads. Master, Dack, and Jaffe (1938) stated that in the presence of right branch block infarction could be diagnosed in two thirds of the cases, and that præcordial leads were more helpful than limb leads. Stokes (1947) quoted this opinion and agreed with it. Wilson *et al* (1944) reported that in right branch block signs of infarction were rare in the limb leads, but were usually shown in præcordial tracings, this view was also expressed by Goldberger (1947) and Carlotti (1947). Rosenbaum *et al* (1944) came to the same conclusion for dogs with experimental right branch block and anterior infarction. The explanation for this difference of opinion came from a consideration of the criteria of infarction in the limb leads. In the past, limb lead cardiograms have not been regarded as diagnostic of infarction if the classical signs of infarction were absent. It was here shown that the diagnosis can often be made if the signs include R-T elevation or T inversion, and if the tracings are not expected to show significant Q deflections.

Diagnostic signs of infarction with conspicuous Q deflections and classical R-T changes were seen in the præcordial cardiogram of all 19 cases here reported, in tracings with signs of infarction in apical or left lateral chest leads, the limb leads showed the lesion as well, but right præcordial leads indicated infarction in 3 records in which all other limb and chest leads were negative, in such cases it was important to be certain of the absence of a small initial R wave in lead CR1 or V1.

The diagnosis of posterior infarction could be made from the presence of conspicuous Q deflections in lead II and from coronary R-T changes in lead II and III in all but one case reported here, the præcordial cardiogram showed upright T waves in lead CR1 or V1 in some tracings, this sign had no diagnostic significance as it was not seen in all records of posterior infarction and because it was also present in other conditions, especially in left

ventricular preponderance, yet it gave valuable help in the analysis of some tracings. In Case 71 an upright T wave in lead CR1 was the only abnormality in limb and chest leads of a patient known to have had posterior infarction in the past, and a flat T wave in a case of anterior infarction (Case 56) suggested an associated lesion, which was shown to be an old posterior infarct by the limb leads, an upright T in lead V1 of another patient with anterior infarction (Case 60) was explained when left ventricular hypertrophy was found on necropsy.

For the purposes of clinical diagnosis, the limb leads furnished all essential information for the diagnosis of cardiac infarction in most cases, they also indicated left ventricular preponderance. Chest leads CR1 or V1 confirmed the presence of right branch block and disclosed a small number of infarcts not shown by any other lead. The combination of limb leads with lead CR1 or V1 revealed all lesions recorded with more numerous chest leads and thus satisfied the clinical needs in the 31 cases of right bundle branch block and cardiac infarction reviewed here.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

It was the object of this paper to inquire into the modifications of the electrocardiogram of cardiac infarction in the presence of right bundle branch block, and to examine the criteria necessary for the diagnosis of infarction. The investigation consisted in an analysis of cardiograms with right branch block taken from healthy subjects, from cases with heart disease other than infarction, and from patients with cardiac infarction. Twenty-three patients with right branch block came under personal observation and 49 reported cases were added. Right bundle branch block is shown to cause certain modifications of the cardiographic signs of infarction. In the limb leads of anterior infarction, significant Q deflections are absent in lead I, the R-T segment often assumes a characteristic shape in lead I or II, showing elevation without bowing, and is then followed by a T wave of normal appearance, when T inversion takes place in lead I or II, it more certainly indicates infarction than T inversion in normal conduction, because this change does not occur from left ventricular preponderance in right branch block. In the præcordial cardiogram the infarct is more often shown in CR1 or V1 leads than would be expected in normal conduction, involvement of this lead appears to be independent of the septal extension of the infarct expected in cases of bundle branch block. Right branch block does not change the classical signs of posterior infarction in the limb

leads, in chest leads, the T wave is upright in lead CR1 or V1 in some cases of posterior infarction

The diagnosis of anterior infarction can be made in the limb leads in many cases if the signs include R-T elevation or T inversion, and if the tracings are not expected to show significant Q deflections, infarction is shown by apical or left lateral chest leads when it is also shown by the limb leads, but lead CR1 or V1 occasionally registers the lesion when all other leads are negative. The diagnosis of posterior infarction is made from the presence of conspicuous Q deflections in lead II and of coronary R-T changes in lead II and III. The præcordial

cardiogram may show upright T waves in lead CR1 or V1, although this sign has no diagnostic value, it is helpful in the interpretation of some electrocardiograms

The limb lead cardiogram in conjunction with lead CR1 or V1 provides the necessary information for the diagnosis of cardiac infarction and right bundle branch block

I wish to place on record my gratitude to Dr William Evans for much encouragement and helpful criticism in the study of cardiology and in the preparation of this paper

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RIGHT VENTRICULAR STENOSIS (BERNHEIM'S SYNDROME)

BY

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Since this clinical state was first described by Bernheim in 1910, very little has appeared in the English language or in journals easily accessible in this country, or at all in recent years. The recent paper on the subject by Russell and Zohman (1945) gives references many of which we cannot check. A good deal was written in 1930 and 1931, and there were seven papers associated with the name of Mazzei and five with that of Martini. We record these cases to draw attention to a pathological state that appears to explain satisfactorily certain rather curious clinical phenomena.

The essential feature of the syndrome is what appears to be a clinical paradox. There are conspicuous features of apparent failure of the right side of the heart in a patient with a lesion affecting the left side. The explanation for this was offered by Bernheim (1910), who pointed out that the septum of the ventricles bulged into the cavity of the right ventricle, and so prevented it filling. Podesta (1936) has called it dextroventricular stenosis. The progress of the disorder has been divided into two stages by Mazzei (1931). In the first the infundibulum becomes dilated and so allows the flow of blood to be maintained despite the interference with the filling of the ventricle. We have satisfied ourselves by means of casts taken of the cavity of the upper part of the right ventricle in two cases that this is so. In the second phase this adjustment becomes inadequate and the signs of hepatic and jugular engorgement are seen. The pulmonary circulation remains unaffected until near the end, when a final congestion of the lungs may appear.

CASE REPORTS

The clinical and post-mortem findings of our five cases now follow and will be discussed and compared with others reported.

Case 1 A labourer, aged 32, was admitted to

hospital in January 1945 complaining of swelling of the legs and feet and of fatigue, but had no shortness of breath. As a child he had attended hospital on account of his heart, and had not been allowed to play games at school. Since leaving school, however, he had been well and had lived an unrestricted life.

The patient was a fat, well-built man. There was no cyanosis. The veins in the neck were not obviously engorged, but the liver was enlarged about one and a half inches below the edge of the ribs. The backs of the legs and the buttocks were swollen. His aspect generally was somewhat pale.

The cardiac dullness extended three-quarters of an inch to the right of the sternum. The apex beat was forcible and situated five and a half inches to the left of the midline in the sixth left interspace. A very loud harsh systolic murmur was best heard three inches from the midline in the fifth left interspace. This murmur was accompanied by a thrill. The murmur was conducted to the mitral and pulmonary areas and to the left axilla, but not particularly upwards. The heart sounds at the apex were quite loud, while those at the base were faint, the pulmonary second sound was louder than the aortic. The pulse was regular, of poor volume, and not anacrotic, with a blood pressure of 100/80. Screening of the heart showed that the right auricle was obviously engorged, the left ventricle was not conspicuously enlarged, and the pulmonary vessels were somewhat prominent. The aorta was normal (Fig 1).

Barium in the œsophagus showed slight engorgement of the left auricle. The cardiogram showed no axis deviation, the rhythm was normal but the effect of digitalis was apparent in R-T negativity in all three leads (Fig 2). The diagnosis appeared to have lain between pulmonary stenosis, aortic stenosis, and patent interventricular septum. The site of the murmur, the predominance of right ventricular failure, the absence of an anacrotic pulse



FIG 1—Case 1 Some engorgement of pulmonary veins but lungs translucent
Right auricle full left ventricle enlarged

and the freedom from dyspnoea, also the equivocal cardiogram, made one decide upon the last, particularly in view of the presence of the lesion in childhood

At first, treatment for the congestive heart failure was successful. Mercurial diuretics were given freely and he was able to go to a convalescent home. After a month or two he returned with further development of failure. In spite of treatment the anasarca gradually returned and steadily increased. He was never orthopnoic and could lie fairly flat in bed. A pulmonary infarct occurred, and he slowly deteriorated and died.

Autopsy There was gross anasarca, profuse ascites, and a moderate hydrothorax on both sides. There was no pulmonary oedema and the lungs were not grossly engorged. Their dryness was remarked

on at the time. The heart was very large—720 g. The left ventricle showed gross hypertrophy, the septum being very thick and bulging extensively into the right ventricle. This was considerably dilated, particularly in the infundibulum. The aortic valves were stenosed as a result of congenital fusion and subsequent calcification. The appearance was that of a bicuspid valve. Calcification was extensive, and in the depths of the anterior cusp there seemed to be traces of a small raphe. The interventricular septum was not patent. The coronary sinus was greatly dilated, perhaps by the high pressure in the right auricle. There was gross passive engorgement of the liver.

Comments The diagnosis was missed in this case because of the site of the murmur and the absence of confirmatory signs of aortic stenosis.

The freedom from embarrassment of the pulmonary circulation, the absence of left axis deviation in the electrocardiogram, and the conspicuous predominance from the first of the results of right side failure made the diagnosis in favour of a patent interventricular septum (*Maladie de Roger*) for pulmonary stenosis did not appear to be in any way indicated

Reflection on the findings at autopsy suggested that the clinical manifestations indicated Bernheim's syndrome. The stenosis of the aortic valves should have sooner or later led to failure of the left ven-

tricle to interpret obvious physical signs, and on reflection it is difficult to see what might have led one to suppose that aortic stenosis was really the cause of the murmur and thrill. Failure of the right ventricle would have been expected to develop early had the ventricular septum been patent

Case 2 A woman aged 62, became more and more out of breath on exertion. This symptom was first noted on hills and long walks, and later on climbing stairs. For the last six months she had been breathless on any slight activity. During the

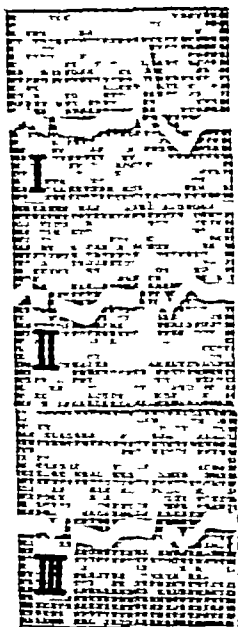


FIG 2

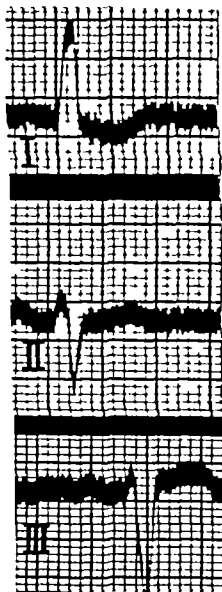


FIG 3

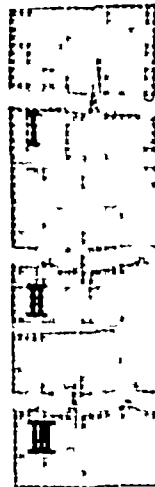


FIG 4

FIG 2—Case 1 Standard three leads, showing bigeminy and negative T waves, but no left axis deviation

FIG 3—Case 2 Standard three leads, showing left axis deviation

FIG 4—Case 4 Standard three leads, showing left axis deviation

tricle, but right ventricular failure was predominant from the first. On Bernheim's theory the encroachment on the cavity of the right ventricle would have been responsible for the early state of the failure of the right side. The absence of engorgement and œdema of the lungs post-mortem was very striking. The absence of left axis deviation agrees with some cases regarded as examples of Bernheim's syndrome, but it seems likely that unipolar limb leads would have shown that the heart was vertical, and consequently the axis deviation due to left ventricular hypertrophy was lacking.

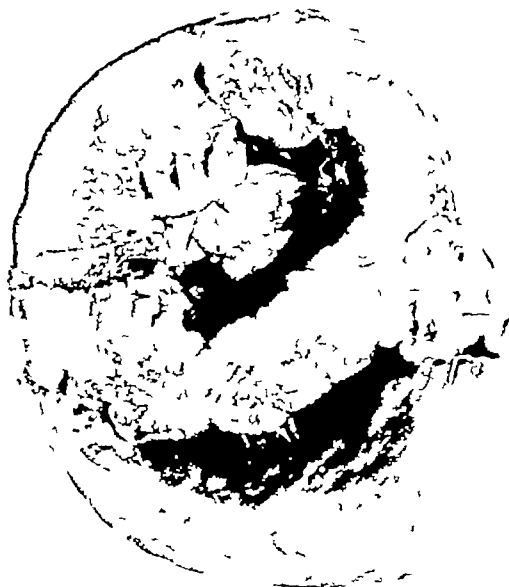
The incorrect diagnosis shows how hard it may

winter before coming into hospital she had been confined to bed for two months, there had been several attacks of bronchitis. She was now rather breathless at rest. There was slight swelling of the ankles, but the liver and the external jugular veins were not engorged. The heart rate was 100, with the rhythm regular. The pulse showed alternation and the wave was slightly anacrotic. The blood pressure was 220/210/145. There was thickening of the brachial and retinal arteries. The apex beat was weak and diffuse, extending five inches to the left of the midline, in the fifth intercostal space. In the mitral area a presystolic gallop rhythm was audible.

At the base, in the aortic area a rough systolic murmur could be heard, extending into the arteries of the neck. No thrill was palpable. The aortic second sound was faint, at the bases of the lungs were fine scattered crepitations, the skiagram showed that the pulmonary veins were engorged. The cardiogram (Fig 3) showed evidence of left ventricular hypertrophy. The diagnosis was failure of the left ventricle due to hypertension and slight aortic stenosis. Failure of the right ventricle was

to 22 from 30 a minute. On the evening of the third day she died suddenly.

Autopsy There was gross œdema and venous congestion. The liver was "nutmeg," weighing 1615 g. The spleen showed severe chronic congestion. The heart weighed 600 g. The left ventricle was enormously hypertrophied, the wall being about 30 mm thick (Fig 5). The septum, which was 20 mm thick, bulged into the cavity of the right ventricle. The aortic valve was stenosed, the cusps



1 m | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5

FIG 5—Case 2. Transverse section of ventricles looking towards the base. The thickened septum bulges into the right ventricle.

developing. Under treatment she improved and kept fairly well on leaving hospital until six months later, when there was a further attack of bronchitis. This time there was rapid development of œdema and venous congestion. The liver was three inches below the ribs, and there was anasarca to the waist. The jugular veins were prominent half way up the neck. She was rather blue, but not orthopnoic, and could lie fairly flat. A few crepitations were heard in the lungs, the pulmonary second sound was loud. After three days in hospital the respiratory rate fell

being fused and calcified. A slight ridge below the free margin suggested a rheumatic infection in the past. The lungs, in contrast to the liver, were free from engorgement, and showed hardly any œdema, the right weighed 550 g (normal 500 g), and the left 380 g (normal 420 g). Microscopical section showed some engorgement and scattered heart failure cells only. There was but a trace of fluid in the left pleural sac. There was nothing to explain the sudden death except the aortic stenosis.

Comments This patient, developed gradual

failure of the left ventricle about two years before her death. Œdema of the ankles did not appear until the last six months. The final failure appears to have been precipitated by an attack of bronchitis and was marked by severe venous congestion which increased rapidly in the last three weeks. Although she was breathless on admission to hospital, this was soon relieved. The important point is the freedom of the lungs from œdema and engorgement post-mortem. It would appear likely that the bulging of the septum into the right ventricle prevented the lungs from being overfilled, although the aortic stenosis and hypertension affecting the left ventricle would have made this a likely finding. It is true that it is common to find failure of the right ventricle following that of the left in such cases as these and this has always been regarded as a true "back pressure" phenomenon. In this instance it would seem more probable that the cause was different, otherwise the lung would have shown the usual intense engorgement associated with a failing left ventricle. The course of the illness suggests that in the earlier phases the lungs may have been involved but that the development of the stenosis of the right ventricle relieved them.

Case 3 A woman, aged 63, had complained of dyspnoea, gradually increasing in intensity, for the previous four years. During the last six months she had had acute attacks of breathlessness at night and had often been orthopnoic. In the last month the legs had become œdematous, and since then she had been confined to bed. Auricular fibrillation was present, with a heart rate of 70, for she had been taking Guy's pill twice a day for two years. The heart was greatly enlarged to the left, with a heaving apex beat. A rough systolic murmur was heard at the apex. The pulmonary second sound was abnormally loud. Crepitations were heard at the bases of both lungs. Œdema was present halfway up the thighs, and there was a small sacral pad. Ascites was present, and the liver was enlarged two inches below the ribs. The cervical veins were engorged.

A cardiogram showed auricular fibrillation. The limb leads indicated right axis deviation, but the præcordial leads confirmed the clinical evidence of left ventricular hypertrophy.

It was supposed that she had previously had high blood pressure and was now in the later stages of congestive failure with auricular fibrillation. She refused to come into hospital and deteriorated steadily at home, but after a month she had to be admitted. There was now massive œdema of the legs and abdominal wall, and even the hands were somewhat swollen. There were no signs in the

lungs and the breathing was easy. She was able to lie quite flat without discomfort.

The cardiogram now showed advanced right axis deviation with a vertical heart, but the chest leads still indicated hypertrophy of the left ventricle.

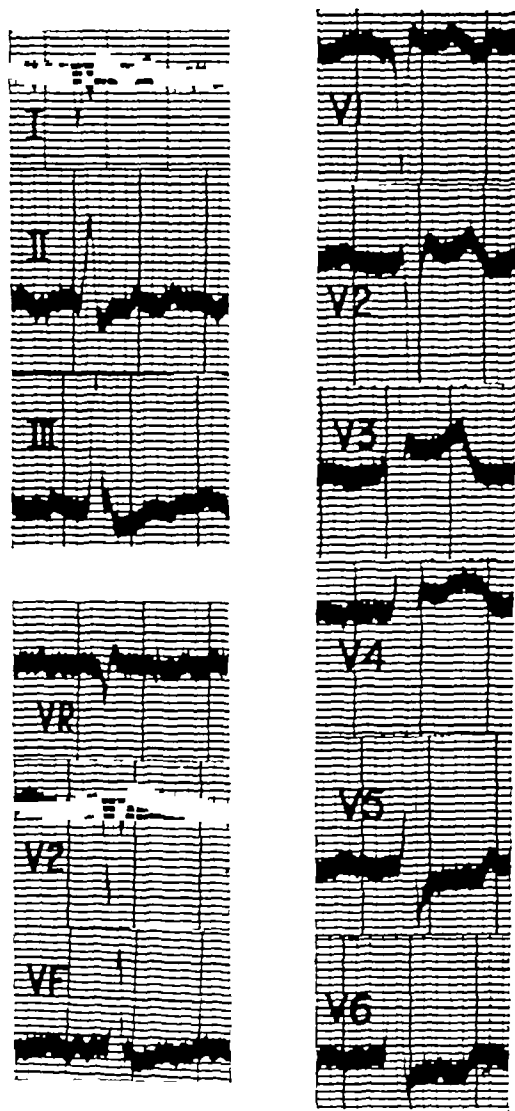


FIG 6—Case 3. Standard leads show right axis deviation. Unipolar limb leads show a vertical heart. Unipolar chest leads show hypertrophy of the left ventricle.

(Fig 6) She slowly got worse, and she died a month later.

The clinical diagnosis of Bernheim's syndrome was suggested on the finding of gross congestive failure in a case of predominantly left-sided disease.

together with freedom from embarrassment of the pulmonary circulation. The findings at autopsy confirmed this diagnosis.

Autopsy Œdema was present in the lower parts of the body. There was no free fluid present in the pleural sacs, the lungs were well aerated throughout and free from œdema. Venous congestion was not conspicuous. The weight of the right lung was 420 g (normal 500 g), and of the left lung 390 g (normal 425 g).

Section of the lungs showed no evidence of chronic venous congestion. On the whole congestive changes were mild. An early bronchopneumonia was developing in the right lower lobe, and here there appeared œdema in the alveoli and congestion of capillaries.

myocardium showed a generalized increase in fibrous tissue which was evenly scattered between the muscle fibres. These fibres themselves showed no degeneration but were definitely hypertrophied. The liver was enlarged (1480 g) and showed evidence of venous congestion. The kidneys were slightly contracted and granular. There was much free fluid present in the abdomen.

Comments The conspicuous finding was hypertrophy of the myocardium of the left ventricle, with great increase in thickness of the interventricular septum, which encroached upon the cavity of the right ventricle. The conspicuous venous engorgement of the portal system was in striking contrast with the absence of engorgement in the pulmonary circulation.



FIG 7—Case 3. Transverse section of the ventricles looking towards the base. The thickened septum bulges into the right ventricle.

The heart was greatly enlarged, weighing 810 g. The most striking feature was the concentric hypertrophy of the muscle of the left ventricle. The wall of the right ventricle was also hypertrophied, and the thickness of the interventricular septum was much increased. The thickness of the right ventricle about halfway up was 4 to 5 mm, and that of the left ventricle about the same level was 20 mm. The septum was 20 to 24 mm in thickness throughout. The cavity of the right ventricle was encroached upon by the bulge of the thickened interventricular septum into it (Fig 7). There was no apparent dilatation of this chamber. The internal capacity was therefore very considerably diminished. The right auricle was dilated. All valves were normal. There were also numerous areas of atheromatous degeneration in the coronary arteries. The

On these findings the clinical diagnosis of Bernheim's syndrome would appear to be confirmed.

Case 4 A woman, aged 54, first came under observation in 1932 when she attended hospital for a mild toxic goitre. This was removed and she made a good recovery.

In 1938, when she was 47, she again attended hospital. She had had several severe paroxysms of auricular fibrillation. There had been a swelling of the ankles and pain over the front of the chest. The signs in the heart now showed aortic stenosis.

In 1945, when she was 54, she was again admitted to hospital. During the past seven years she had had attacks of fibrillation from time to time, and in the last year or two she had had a good deal of pain under the sternum on walking. Breathlessness had

not been a conspicuous symptom, there never had been any orthopnoea. There was a good deal of swelling of the ankles and a considerable pad in the sacral area. The veins in the neck were considerably engorged and filled from below up to about four inches above the level of the right auricle when she was sitting nearly upright. The liver was a good deal enlarged. The apex beat reached the sixth space five inches from the midline. There was a typical murmur of aortic stenosis. The aortic second sound was not audible. Auricular fibrillation came and went. There was, however, no satisfactory improvement in the signs of congestive heart failure. Digitalis and diuretics were ineffective. Gradually the oedema became more general and her condition deteriorated. She was never in any way breathless and she gradually sank and died. The electrocardiogram had shown auricular fibrillation, with left axis deviation.

It was noticeable that this patient, who had evidently had aortic stenosis for a good many years, never complained of shortness of breath. The final phase of heart failure lasted two months and was marked by symptoms of failure of the right ventricle, whereas one would have expected a phase of left ventricular failure.

Autopsy. There was generalized anasarca, a few ounces of fluid were present in each pleural sac but the lungs were remarkably dry, but little engorged and quite free from oedema. The right weighed 510 g (normal 500 g) and the left 390 g (normal 425 g). The heart weighed 540 g. There was much engorgement of the right auricle and of the great veins. The right ventricle was full, the left ventricle was greatly hypertrophied, and the septum was very thick and bulged prominently into the cavity of the right ventricle. The tricuspid ring was slightly enlarged. The aortic valves were fused, so that a small slit-like opening only was left. The valves were heavily calcified and a ridge of nodular calcium deposit seemed to mark a raphe where the commissure of the two anterior cusps might have been. These were probably congenital bicuspid aortic valves which had become calcified. The stenosis had presumably developed progressively in the course of the last fourteen years.

Comments. In this case it is notable that the pulmonary circulation escaped engorgement right up to the end. One might conclude that this was an example of Bernheim's syndrome in which a terminal 'failure' of the right side of the heart occurred, without any indications of failure of the left ventricle. The presence of aortic stenosis would have led one to expect symptoms of left ventricular failure, but in this case again it would appear that engorgement upon the cavity of the right ventricle

by the bulging septum precipitated the failure of the right side and protected the lungs.

Case 5. A clerk, aged 58, a tall, thin man, was sent to hospital with severe epistaxis. He was found to have a blood pressure of 220/130, some enlargement of the left ventricle, the apex beat being of a powerful, thrusting character in the sixth intercostal space, four and a half inches from the midline. The peripheral arteries were thick, and the ischaemic, narrow retinal arterioles compressed the veins. There was a trace of albumin in the urine. There was no hepatic or jugular engorgement.

A month later he returned with oedema halfway up the shins, and distended jugular veins whose fullness increased on compression of the abdomen. The heart rate was 80, the beat regular. A gallop rhythm was audible and with this was associated a duplication of the apex beat, which was easily seen and felt. The aortic second sound was loud, but the pulmonary second sound was not. The cardiogram showed left axis deviation with a negative T I (Fig. 4). He had complained of no dyspnoea at all.

In connection with the last of these indications of embarrassment of the pulmonary circulation it was noted that there were no crepitations at the bases of the lungs, the skiagram (Fig. 8) showed no gross pulmonary engorgement.

After three weeks' treatment all signs of failure had cleared up and the gallop rhythm had disappeared. A few months later he died suddenly at home.

Comment. In this patient signs of congestive failure appeared in the systemic circulation, without the symptoms and pulmonary signs indicating prior failure of the left ventricle. The skiagram was clear, the circulation time (decholin) of only 28 seconds was but little prolonged.

For these reasons it seems correct to class this as an early case of Bernheim's syndrome. Although there was ready response to treatment at first, death occurred a few months later.

TYPES OF LESION

The underlying lesion in all these cases was either hypertension or aortic stenosis. These cause concentric hypertrophy of the left ventricle. Perusal of Bernheim's original series suggests that most of his patients were hypertensive, but no readings of the blood pressures were made. The same causes were present in Russell's series and those of Mazzei (1931), also in the series of 9 reported by Casafourth and Superviola (1936). Aortic stenosis was present in Olmer's patient (1933) and in that described by Glushien and Geer (1943). For some reason the



FIG 8—Case 5 No indication of pulmonary engorgement Hypertrophy of left ventricle

gross dilatation of the left ventricle caused by free aortic incompetence does not lead to right ventricular stenosis. Possibly the explanation is that the septum does not become sufficiently thick.

Appearances in the skiagram It has been claimed that distension of the right auricle is a feature (Glushein and Geer, 1943). Two of our cases suggested this, but in Case 5, admittedly in an early stage (Fig 8), it is not present. The important point is the absence of engorgement of the fields of the lungs, although there may be slight overfilling of the pulmonary veins. We agree with other observers that the important triad is large left ventricle, clear lung fields, and full right auricle.

POST-MORTEM FINDINGS

The encroachment of the septum upon the cavity of the right ventricle is very obvious when the ventricles are cut across at right angles to the long axis of the heart, midway between the apex and the base. This finding is likely to be missed when the ventricles are opened by V-shaped cuts, one down the outer border and the other upwards to the pulmonary artery (or aorta), as is usually done. The transverse cut should really be made first of all in any post-mortem examination of the heart, this procedure might prevent the septal bulging from being overlooked, as we fancy it easily may be if the other procedure is followed.

Photographs of the transversely divided ventricles are apt to be unsatisfactory, as by the time the heart has been opened the relative positions of the walls of the ventricles is lost and plugging with cotton wool and fixing in formalin easily spoils the true shape. We attempted to make a cast in two cases, of the upper part of the right ventricle and infundibulum. It is almost impossible to get a good photograph of this but we were satisfied that this part, the outflow tract, remains tubular in form, leading up to the pulmonary artery, thus giving an outlet relieving the constriction below as suggested by Russell and Zohman (1945) and earlier by Mazzei (1931).

THE LUNGS

The dryness of the lungs at autopsy, free from engorgement and œdema, as shown by their normal weight, is very striking. In all four cases this was a notable feature. This agrees, of course, with the relatively rapid circulation rate. Other observers have noted (e.g. Bernheim in five of his ten cases) infarcts in the lungs whether these are due to emboli or thromboses is not clear.

Cooke and White (1941) point out that in tricuspid stenosis there is conspicuous jugular engorgement with freedom from pulmonary congestion, so that the patient may be able to lie flat and even walk about with but little distress. Constriction of the pericardial sac presents the same apparent paradox, as Glushien and Geer (1943) have noted. The syndrome of Bernheim, by reason of the right ventricular stenosis, presents a third example of this curious combination of signs, it amounts, in fact, as Fishberg has stated (1940), to "a virtual tricuspid stenosis".

OTHER FINDINGS

The circulation rate In two of our patients (Cases 1 and 5) in which the observation was made the circulation rate was not grossly slowed, the arm to tongue time in both being 28 seconds. This is quite unlike the result one would expect in ordinary congestive failure, when it should be well over 40 seconds. Similar observations were made by Russell and Zohman (1945). As slowing chiefly occurs in the pulmonary circulation, the results indicate the relative freedom of the lungs from embarrassment.

The cardiogram It will be noted that three of the curves in these cases of left ventricular hypertrophy show the expected left axis deviation in the three standard limb leads. In one this feature is absent and in another there is actually right axis

deviation. There has been a good deal of comment on this absence of the curve of left axis deviation, and it has been suggested that the bulging of the septum of the ventricles to the right may be the cause of these curves by affecting the electrical axis (Russell Zohman, 1945). It seems to us that the explanation is to be found in the unipolar limb leads which show that the heart is actually vertically placed in the chest and so the presence of the hypertrophy of the left ventricle cannot cause left axis deviation. This is not an uncommon finding in certain cases of left ventricular hypertrophy, quite apart from the presence of septal displacement to the right. We have recently noted three patients with aortic stenosis, two congenital in youths, and the third of the fibrocalcareous acquired type in an elderly man who showed no left axis deviation, but with unipolar limb leads showing the heart to be vertical.

We therefore conclude that there are no cardiographic changes peculiar to Bernheim's syndrome.

Further investigation It seems likely that two lines of investigation in such cases as these will be fruitful. It would be interesting to know what pressures may be revealed in the pulmonary artery by intracardiac catheterization. Angiocardiography should show the peculiar shape of the cavity of the right ventricle.

TREATMENT

In these cases the question of venesection may arise. It would seem inadvisable to bleed in these circumstances, as a raised venous pressure is no doubt beneficial. Anything that reduces the venous pressure might do harm, and this perhaps applies to such drugs as digitalis and cardophyllin.

SUMMARY

Right ventricular stenosis (Bernheim's syndrome) may be found in patients with hypertension or aortic stenosis.

The symptoms suggesting failure of the right ventricle come on early, and may be transient at first. The pulmonary circulation remains free from embarrassment, and the patient is free from orthopnoea, even to the end.

The clinical diagnosis is confirmed at autopsy by the state of the lungs and transverse section of the ventricles.

There are no cardiographic changes peculiar to the condition.

Our thanks are due to Professor Magnus for Fig. 5, and Dr. J. V. Wilson for Fig. 7.

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MITRAL STENOSIS IN LATER LIFE

BY

HAROLD COOKSON

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Rheumatic heart disease with mitral stenosis has been regarded as a disease that produces symptoms in adolescence or early adult life, and death before the age of forty in the majority. It is admitted that occasionally the first symptoms will appear at the time of the menopause and that if the lesion is accompanied by hypertension, life may be prolonged beyond this period (Levine, 1945). The few clinical observations that have been made on the subject, put the incidence of mitral stenosis beyond the age 50, at from 6 to 10 per cent (Coombs, 1924, Brenner, 1934, Hedley, 1940) (see Table I). Levine and

of mitral stenosis in the elderly. These reports give the percentage of patients dying with mitral stenosis at age 50 or more as from 9 to 33 per cent, figures that are so much higher than those for the clinical incidence as to suggest that the diagnosis is often missed during life (Coombs, 1924, Cabot, 1926, Cookson, 1930, Brenner, 1934, Hedley, 1940, White and Bland, 1941, Gelfman, 1943, Zeman, 1945, Karsner and Koletsky, 1947) (Table I).

The present investigation concerns 37 patients with mitral stenosis and one with mitral incompetence, ranging in age from 51 to 77 years. There were only 9 men, giving a sex ratio of more than 3 females to 1 male, which is higher than that for all cases of mitral stenosis (Table II). The

TABLE I

MITRAL STENOSIS (OR RHEUMATIC HEART DISEASE)
(Proportion of cases over 50 years of age)

Clinical cases Author	Necropsy cases Author
1 Coombs (1924) 6%	1 Coombs (1924) 9%
2 Brenner (1934) 10%	2 Cabot (1926) 33%
3 Hedley (1940) 7%	3 Cookson (1930) 12%
	(M S and A F over age 48)
	4 Brenner (1934) 20%
	5 Hedley (1940) 11%
	6 White and Bland (1941)
	(5 cases, aged 73-85)
	7 Gelfman (1943) 33%
	8 Zeman (1945)
	(10 patients aged 60-74
	with M S and subacute
	bacterial endocarditis)
	9 Karsner and Koletsky
	(1947)
	(48 with M S and aortic
	calcification in elderly
	patients)

Kauver (1941-42) were able to collect from the records of a hospital and a private practice over about a quarter of a century, 28 patients over 50 years of age with mitral stenosis and angina pectoris. But more information is available from post-mortem studies than from clinical reports on the question

TABLE II

THIRTY-EIGHT PATIENTS WITH MITRAL DISEASE
OVER FIFTY

Age	Number
51-60	26 (18 F 8 M)
61-70	8 (7 F 1 M)
71-77	4 (4 F 0 M)

predominance of women increased in each successive decade so that all patients over 70 were women. A greater number was seen in private than in hospital practice which is the reverse of the distribution for younger age groups. There was a clear history of rheumatic fever or chorea in 15, and in a further 8, a valve lesion or heart disease had been diagnosed in childhood or early adult life. In 5, the first known attack of rheumatic fever occurred at the age of 34 or later, and recurrent attacks after the age of 30 were mentioned in 2 others.

All had lived actively and, though some admitted that they had never been capable of strenuous exertion because of shortness of breath, the general capacity for work was at least average. Of 23

women who were married, 18 had had children, in one case, five

INITIAL SYMPTOMS

When first seen, 32 of the 38 cases had established auricular fibrillation, 2 came under observation with paroxysmal tachycardia, 1 with paroxysmal fibrillation, and only 3 had normal rhythm. In one of these last, fibrillation set in after a few weeks. In 8 cases a sudden onset of symptoms, mainly palpitation and dyspnoea, was known to coincide with the occurrence of fibrillation or was strongly suggested by the history. In 3, the first symptoms were due to cerebral embolism, in one to pulmonary infarction and in one to ischaemia of the legs. Congestive failure was present in about one third of all cases when they were first seen, and this nearly always responded to appropriate treatment. In a further third, systemic congestion developed during the period of observation and treatment which was generally a matter of years. Failure under these conditions was resistant to treatment though some survived in a state of invalidism for months or years. Systemic congestion with normal rhythm was observed in one patient only. Two patients who died from the effects of left auricular thrombosis never showed signs of systemic congestion. They had auricular fibrillation and symptoms for six months and four years respectively.

DIAGNOSIS

The diagnosis of mitral stenosis in the patients in this series, was made on the presence of a rough, low-pitched diastolic murmur heard best at the apex beat or occasionally a short distance from it, as for example in the intercostal space above the apex. The murmur begins very soon after the second sound, is decrescendo, dying away as a rule before the first sound, though rarely reaching it. In this last event an impression of a crescendo presystolic murmur is possible even with auricular fibrillation. The diastolic murmur may be so rough as to be unmistakably that of mitral stenosis, but more often it is softer, yet not of the blowing quality characteristic of the aortic diastolic murmur. Nevertheless, when aortic incompetence was present, as it was in ten patients, mitral stenosis was not considered proved by a low pitched apical murmur, unless characteristic X-ray changes of mitral stenosis were present. The diastolic murmur of mitral stenosis in the elderly requires careful and sometimes lengthy auscultation for its detection, and it may be quite inaudible in any but the long diastoles. Mitral stenosis may of course exist when the only murmur is systolic. There were two

cases of this type, in which the diagnosis was established post-mortem, but apart from these a mitral diastolic murmur had been heard in all, though not necessarily on every occasion the patient was examined. Subsidiary signs of mitral stenosis were usually present, in order of frequency these were a sharp first sound, a third heart sound, accentuated pulmonary second sound, and flushed or cyanotic appearance of the malar eminence.

HYPERTENSION

Levine (1945) remarked on the frequency of arterial hypertension in older patients with mitral stenosis, and indeed ascribed their longevity to this complication. It is not easy, however, to determine the frequency of hypertension in these cases as the blood pressure is difficult to estimate. This is, first, because of the almost invariable presence of auricular fibrillation and second because there is sometimes aortic incompetence, both of which conditions tend to give high readings for the systolic and lower readings for the diastolic pressure. In the present cases a minimum diastolic pressure of 100 mm or more was found in 19 (50 per cent). On this criterion of hypertension, it was present in one half of all patients. Taking a systolic pressure of 190 mm or more as a criterion of hypertension, it was present in 12 (31 per cent) of cases. With either of these standards the incidence of arterial hypertension must be regarded as high in mitral stenosis in the elderly.

Yet in spite of this high proportion with hypertension and the advanced average age of the subjects, characteristic anginal pain was experienced by one patient only. This was a woman of 71 with mitral stenosis, aortic incompetence, and auricular fibrillation. Her blood pressure was 160/100 mm. She described typical retrosternal pain in walking up steep hills. She had never shown any signs of systemic congestion. In a further two patients, however, pain occurred which may be regarded as anginal. This was in 2 men who died of left auricular thrombosis and who complained shortly before death of pain in the lower chest and epigastrium.

RADIOLOGICAL APPEARANCES

The accepted X-ray cardiac changes in mitral stenosis are an increase in the left middle arc so that the usual slight concavity in this region comes into line with the left lower contour and the shadow of the aortic knuckle, or there is a convexity in this region which may be single or double. The vascular pedicle is narrow and the aortic knob is small or non-existent. Displacement of the oesophagus

backward and to the right reveals an enlargement of the left auricle. At first these changes are not accompanied by any alteration in the shape of the left lower contour or of the right contour but as time passes these also become more or less prominent, and on the right border may be seen a double contour produced by the two auricles.

Radioscopy and radiography were carried out in all cases except five, and in three of these five, necropsy was done. A cardiac silhouette that could be regarded as within normal limits was seen only once (Fig 1A and 1B). This was in a man aged 58 whose only known attack of rheumatic fever occurred when he was 45; auricular fibrillation was present but symptoms were very mild. Slight general cardiac enlargement with increase in the left middle arc was also unusual. An example is shown in Fig 2 taken from a man of 53 who had normal blood pressure and whose heart at necropsy weighed 325 g, with moderate right ventricular hypertrophy, the left ventricle being normal. The onset of auricular fibrillation causes a rapid increase in the size of the heart even in the absence of systemic

congestion. This is shown in Fig 3 and 4 from a woman aged 51. The first of these radiographs was taken while normal rhythm was present and the second a few weeks later after auricular fibrillation had developed, it shows some increase in the right, left lower and left middle contours of the heart. Increase in the size of the left auricle sufficient to bring it to the right heart border was seen in five cases although in the first oblique position they usually showed only moderate displacement of the oesophagus. Deviation of the oesophagus to the left and backward instead of to the right and backward was met with in two patients (Fig 5, 6, 7, and 8). This is well seen on screening after barium swallow in the second oblique position or in the face position, but in the first position the course of the oesophagus may appear almost normal. The narrow vascular pedicle and inconspicuous aortic knob characteristic of the X-ray picture in young subjects with mitral stenosis was never seen. On the contrary the knob was always visible and often prominent, though this prominence tends to be minimized by the increased middle arc below it.

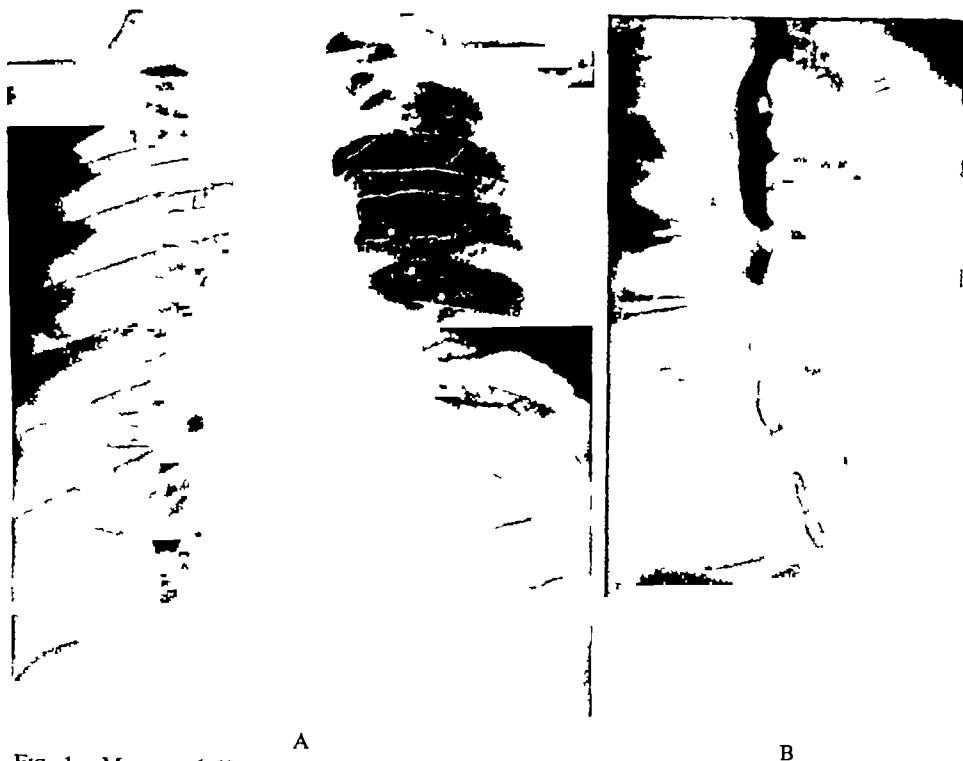


FIG 1—Man, aged 58, an Army officer on active service until age 56, only known attack of rheumatic fever at age 45, mitral stenosis, auricular fibrillation. (A) Postero-anterior radiograph shows heart of normal size and shape, or possibly minimal increase in left middle arc. (B) Right (I) oblique view shows no enlargement of left auricle.

When the left lower contour is also well out, the result is a contour which bears no resemblance to the typical silhouette of mitral stenosis

A well marked aortic impression on the œsophagus and the opacities of aortic calcification are also common features of the X-ray picture of mitral stenosis in the elderly Fig 9 and 10 represent the characteristic features of mitral stenosis combined with great cardiac enlargement in three women aged 71, 74, and 77 respectively (see pp 162-163)

CAUSE OF DEATH

Sixteen of the 38 patients died after an average duration of symptoms of $4\frac{1}{2}$ years, the average age at death being 62 years Twelve died with systemic congestion complicated in two by cerebral vascular lesions, acute rheumatism in one and pulmonary infarction in one Two died from acute pulmonary congestion In four of the sixteen cases necropsy was done Two of these showed thrombosis of

the left auricle, the thrombus extending on to the mitral valve and further obstructing it The first, a man aged 60, had some abdominal and leg pains, then developed a sudden painful paraplegia, with pain also in the chest and left arm and delirium There was a complete absence of arterial pulsation in the legs which quickly became gangrenous Death occurred on the 19th day Necropsy showed an extreme mitral stenosis, the orifice just admitting the tip of the little finger A large soft vegetation measuring 3 cm \times 2 cm was situated on the left auricular wall extending on to the aortic cusp of the mitral valve and encroaching on its opening (Fig 11) Just above the bifurcation of the aorta there was a small dissecting aneurysm of its wall with leakage of a little blood into the retro-peritoneal tissues (Fig 12, page 164)

The second, a man of 53, had lower chest or epigastric pain with symptoms of cerebral anoxæmia a few hours before death Necropsy again showed extreme mitral stenosis with a loose fresh looking

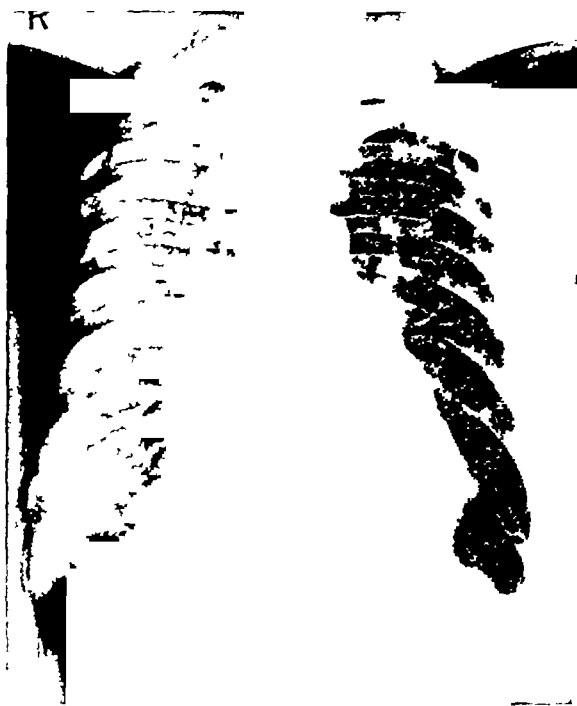


FIG 2—Man, aged 53 Mitral stenosis and auricular fibrillation postero-anterior radiograph shows prominence of pulmonary artery and of conus separately, but no prominence of other cardiac contours aortic knob prominent Necropsy severely stenosed calcified mitral valve with fresh thrombus on its auricular aspect, left ventricle not enlarged, heart weight, 325 g

clot blocking the orifice. Rough calcified plaques almost encircled the base of the valve. Neither of these two patients with severe mitral obstruction had shown signs of systemic congestion. Their chest pain near the end may have been cardiac in

TABLE III

CAUSE OF DEATH IN SIXTEEN PATIENTS
(Average age at death 62 years)

Systemic congestive failure	12
(Acute rheumatism 1)	
(Cerebral vascular lesion 2)	
(Pulmonary infarction 1)	
Acute pulmonary oedema	2
L A thrombus obstructing mitral orifice	2

origin and due to auricular thrombosis as suggested by Evans and Benson (1948). In a third case, a woman of 62, necropsy showed pure mitral incompetence. The clinical diagnosis had been hypertension and congestive failure, though there was a history of rheumatic fever in childhood, and valve disease had been diagnosed at age 7. The layers of the pericardium were densely adherent

throughout the mitral cusps were thick and opaque with rounded margins and the orifice easily admitted four fingers. The left auricle was greatly enlarged with a capacity of over 500 ml (Fig 13). A fourth necropsy on a woman of 59 who died in congestive failure shows a heart weighing 750 g with severe mitral stenosis and moderate aortic and tricuspid stenosis.

DISCUSSION

The onset of auricular fibrillation appears to mark a turning point in the life history of patients who have suffered little or no handicap from mitral stenosis with normal rhythm up to middle or late life. Symptoms are rarely sufficient to make the patient seek advice till an arrhythmia develops, nearly always fibrillation, but occasionally it is auricular tachycardia that is responsible for the breakdown. Only three patients had normal rhythm when they first came under observation. Once fibrillation has become installed the patients' activities are more or less curtailed and their lives must thereafter be lived in a state varying from slight

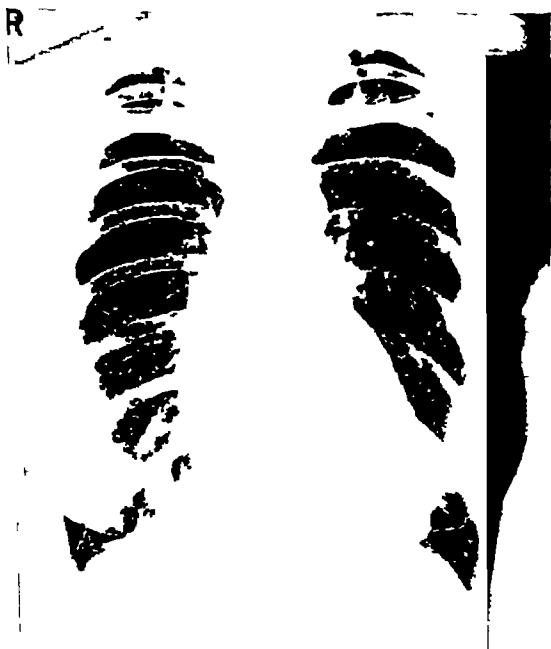


FIG 3—Woman, aged 51. Mitral stenosis, normal rhythm, radiograph shows some increase in left middle arc only.

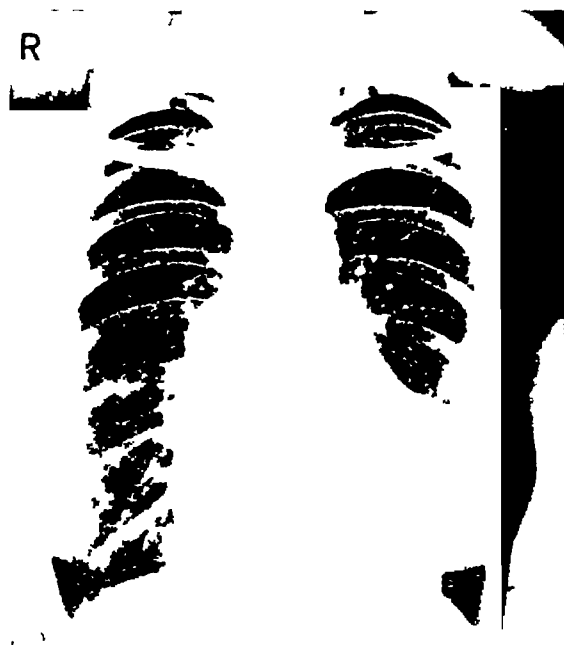


FIG 4—Same case as Fig 3. Radiograph taken a few weeks later after onset of auricular fibrillation, now shows greater prominence of left middle arc and some increase in left lower and right contours although there were no clinical signs of venous congestion.

to severe invalidism. At the first appearance of fibrillation with a rapid ventricle or of paroxysmal tachycardia, systemic congestion may occur but this is usually amenable to treatment after which there may be a long period of fair comfort. In some cases systemic congestion is delayed for years after the onset of fibrillation but when it does eventually occur it is resistant to treatment. Life may nevertheless be prolonged for years in a condition of advanced failure. The duration of symptoms that were more or less incapacitating averaged $4\frac{1}{2}$ years for the whole series with extreme for a few weeks to 25 years. The commonest cause of death was systemic congestion with pulmonary infarction and cerebral vascular lesions as occasional contributory causes, but in two patients, one with severe hypertension, it was left ventricular failure. Two patients who died from left auricular thrombosis are of interest, in that neither had shown systemic congestion in spite of severe mitral stenosis.

The radiographic appearance of the heart in mitral stenosis of later life shows some differences from

the typical picture in young subjects with this valve lesion, the heart is usually much enlarged and the aortic knob is not small, often it is prominent and shows calcification of its wall. Barium swallow sometimes shows a conspicuous aortic impression. Left auricular enlargement was revealed by the œsophagogram, yet in cases where the enlargement was great, as indicated by its extension to form part of the right cardiac border, œsophageal displacement in the first oblique position was only moderate. In two the œsophagus was displaced considerably to the left and backward. Displacement in this direction can be seen only by screening in the second oblique or face positions, it is very rare in mitral stenosis in young subjects.

Although a valve lesion or heart disease had been diagnosed in 8 of the patients when they were young, only 3 of the 38 cases described were referred with the diagnosis of mitral stenosis and it seems probable that many elderly patients with this valve lesion are not recognized as such. The mitral diastolic murmur often needs careful auscultation for its



FIG 5—Woman, aged 58. Mitral stenosis, auricular fibrillation, hypertension (260/110), congestive failure, working as domestic servant until a few days previously. Postero-anterior radiograph shows great cardiac enlargement, straight left border. œsophagus seen through heart shadow, is deviated to left. Right pleural effusion.

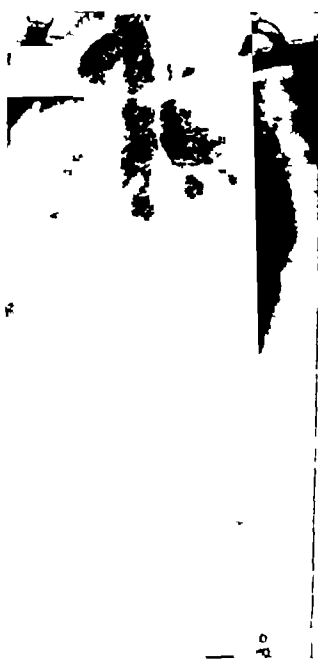


FIG 6—Same case as Fig. 5. Left (II) oblique view, left-auricular enlargement shown by displaced œsophagus.

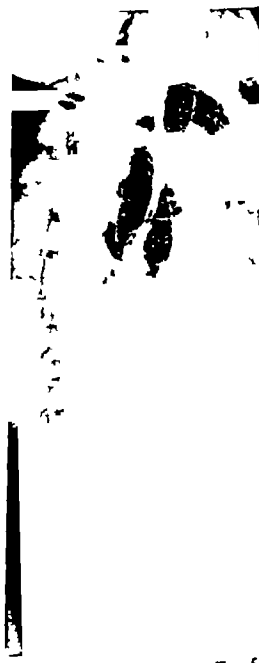


FIG 7—Same case as Fig. 5 and 6. Right (I) oblique view. œsophagus not displaced by left auricle but the shadow of the L.A. can be seen extending backward across the spine. Calcification of aortic arch.

detection when auricular fibrillation is present and the site of audibility may be very localized. Moreover there is a general reluctance to diagnose rheumatic heart disease in the elderly which makes it more unlikely that the characteristic signs will be found. Hence a diagnosis of arteriosclerosis or hypertension—which are also frequently present—is made. There is little reason to think that an atheromatous lesion with calcification was responsible for any of the present cases and it is not established that such a lesion can produce mitral obstruction of clinical importance. In about 60 per cent there was a clear history of rheumatic fever or of a cardiac lesion having been found in early life. The absence or mildness of symptoms in the present group until late in life, is perhaps to be accounted for by a relatively slight myocardial injury, in a few perhaps by the first attack of rheumatic fever occurring at a relatively advanced age. It is not due merely to the slightness of the valvular stenosis, as indicated by extreme narrowing of the mitral valve in two patients who came to autopsy, neither of whom had ever had congestive failure.

White and Bland (1941) describe similar severe latent mitral stenosis in three patients aged 73 or more. It is evident that as with some other obstructions to the main vascular channels, such as severe aortic stenosis and aortic coarctation, an advanced lesion of this valve is compatible with good health over very long periods of time.

SUMMARY

Thirty-eight patients, aged 51 to 77, with mitral stenosis (including one with pure mitral incompetence) are described. The valve lesion was believed to be rheumatic in all cases. Sixty per cent gave a clear history of rheumatic fever, or of a cardiac lesion having been discovered in early life. In a few cases the first known attack of rheumatic fever occurred in the fourth decade or later. Physical activity had been little, or not at all, restricted in the past and the appearance of symptoms calling for medical care coincided nearly always with the onset of auricular fibrillation, though occasionally with paroxysmal tachycardia. There was arterial hyper-



FIG 8—Woman, aged 66. Mitral stenosis, auricular fibrillation, hypertension (245/150) and congestive failure. Great general enlargement of the heart, very slight convexity of left middle arc, œsophagus pushed to left by large left auricle, deep aortic impression on œsophagus, calcification of aortic knob.

tension in a high proportion of the patients. The X-ray picture differs in several respects from that of younger subjects with mitral stenosis. Initial symptoms, occurrence of congestive failure and cause of death are discussed. It is suggested that

mitral stenosis is not rare in patients over 50 years of age and that careful auscultation of elderly subjects with auricular fibrillation will reveal this valve lesion, where formerly it was unsuspected.

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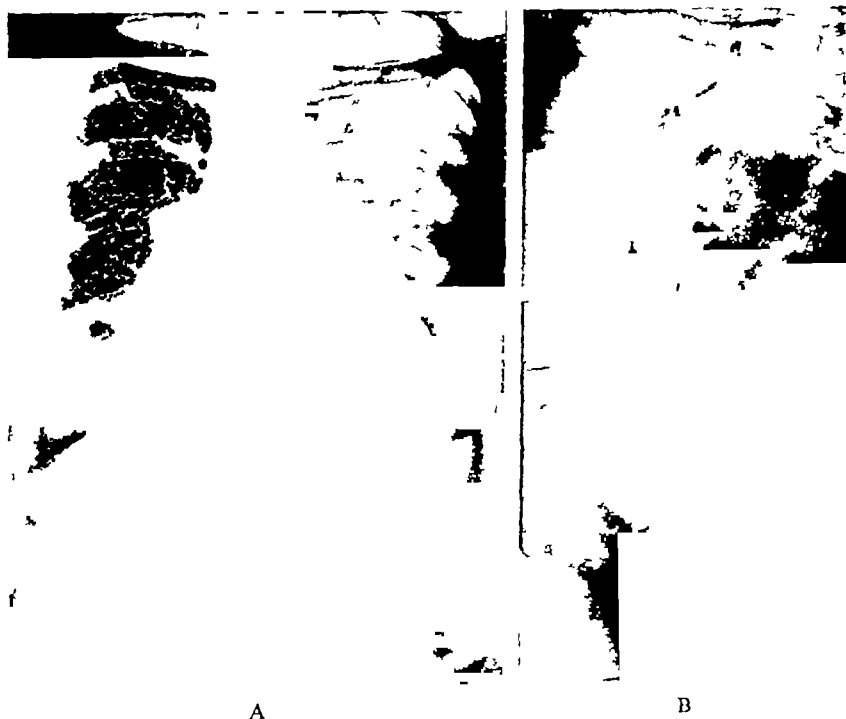


FIG 9—Woman, aged 71. Mitral stenosis, slight aortic incompetence, auricular fibrillation, no signs of systemic congestion, B P 160/100. (A) Postero anterior view shows considerable cardiac enlargement, small convexities on upper part of left profile. (B) Right (I) oblique view shows œsophageal displacement by left auricle.

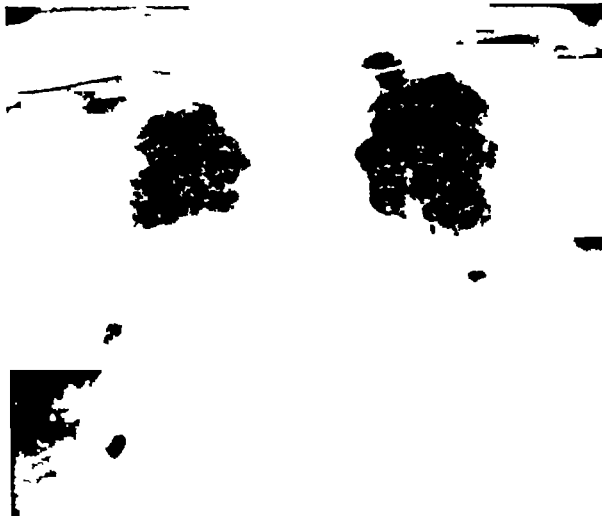


FIG 10—Woman aged 77 Mitral stenosis aortic incompetence auricular fibrillation congestive failure Postero anterior view shows very great cardiac enlargement of crinoline shape with a relatively narrow waist above formed by the vascular pedicle, left middle are very prominent pulmonary opacities suggesting hemosiderosis



FIG 11—Heart from man aged 60 Mitral stenosis auricular fibrillation, no systemic congestion, death from gangrene of the legs Photograph shows opened left auricle to the left of the specimen, and a thrombus measuring 3 cm \times 2 cm on the wall of the auricle which extends on to the aortic cusp of the mitral valve and further obstructs its orifice Mitral opening just admitted tip of little finger



FIG 12—Abdominal aorta from same patient as Fig 11 Shows perforated atheromatous ulcer just above the bifurcation



FIG 13—Heart from woman aged 62 History of rheumatic fever in childhood Clinical diagnosis hypertension (215/115) auricular fibrillation congestive failure Necropsy showed adherent pericardium and as shown in photograph large left auricle with a capacity of 500 ml thickened opaque mitral cusps with rounded margins, the orifice admitting four fingers This was regarded as rheumatic mitral incompetence without stenosis

CIRCULATION TIMES IN CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

BY

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Since the introduction of surgical treatment for congenital heart disease, which was mainly of academic interest before, it has become important to diagnose as far as is possible the anatomical and dynamic abnormalities present in each case. This need has placed a premium upon any method, more especially if simple and safe, that may help to elucidate the problem. The purpose of this communication is to report briefly the results obtained from circulation time estimations in congenital heart disease, and to discuss what value this simple test possesses.

References to circulation times are numerous, and it is not intended to review these extensively. Blumgart, Weiss, and others first perfected a technique and studied circulation times extensively, reporting their results in 1927 and 1928. Their method involved using radium C and was an objective one, but owing to the technical complexity of the apparatus and agent it is unsuitable for clinical work. Most of the methods described subsequently for the arm-tongue time have been subjective, except those using fluorescein, histamine, and sodium cyanide. In 1933, sodium dehydrocholate was used in a series reported by Tarr, Oppenheimer, and Sager, although its first use is credited to Nebauer in 1923. Saccharin was introduced by Fishberg, Hitzig, and King in 1933. With the exception of Blumgart's radium method, measurements of the arm-lung time depend upon a subjective reaction, and ether, introduced by Hitzig in 1935 and paraldehyde first used by Caudel in 1938, were the agents commonly used. An excellent review of the methods devised was published by Baer and Slipakoff in 1938.

References to circulation times in congenital heart disease are scanty, but Tarr, Oppenheimer, and Sager (1933), report that the arm-tongue time, in a patient diagnosed as having Fallot's tetralogy, was on three occasions considerably shorter than normal. In 1937, Goldman and McGuire reported the

apparent acceleration of blood velocity as measured by the arm-tongue time in three cases of morbus cœruleus. It has been used widely at the Johns Hopkins Hospital, and Taussig (1947) states that the absence of any shortening of the time may support the diagnosis of pure pulmonary stenosis, that shortening of the time may support the diagnosis of Eisenmenger's complex even when there is no obvious cyanosis, and that a prolonged time may be found with aortic stenosis. Prinzmetal in 1941, proposed a quantitative method for the estimates of the actual amount of right to left shunt.

METHOD USED

The agents used have been 20 per cent sodium dehydrocholate in 18 estimations of the arm-tongue time, and 50 per cent saccharin in a further 22 estimations. Saccharin has been used owing to the recent difficulty in obtaining decholin, although this latter gives a sharper and more distinctive end point and has a lower threshold concentration for taste. In all 35 estimations of the arm-lung time, 5 per cent paraldehyde in saline has been used. The normal range for the arm-tongue time, using these agents, is 11 to 17 seconds, and for the arm-lung time 3 to 8 seconds.

Reports have appeared from time to time of unpleasant effects from the use of decholin, and in three cases these have resulted in the patients' death, though in all the reported cases of death, the patients showed a previous history of sensitivity, such as asthma, etc., if patients with such a history are excluded from injections, it seems that decholin is a safe substance to use. Saccharin and paraldehyde may cause pain on injection, and the former has been reported as producing abscess formation when injected paravenously. Venous thrombosis has been reported as a frequent complication following saccharin and paraldehyde, whilst nausea and vomiting are said to follow the injection of decholin.

on occasions. In this series there has been no fatality, and no evidence of venous thrombosis or any other complication except that about half the subjects complained of pain in the arm following paraldehyde, whilst one vomited after receiving decholin, and another became extremely nauseated.

All patients have been investigated while lying at rest, either in the wards or at the Cardiac Out-patients of Guy's Hospital. The injections have been made with the site of injection, in each case a vein at the bend of the elbow, approximately level with the right auricle. Four ml of each agent are used, in all-glass syringes fitted with a wide bore intravenous needle. After venepuncture has been performed, a minute or so is allowed to pass whilst the local circulatory conditions return to normal in the previously congested area. This opportunity is taken of ensuring that the patient knows what to expect, and that he has to signal as he tastes the appropriate substance. The time taken for the actual injection has been found to be remarkably constant at 2 to 2.5 seconds, and this can be disregarded in the results. An assistant is instructed to measure the time taken from the beginning of the injection until the patient's signal. Immediately following this, the arm-lung time is estimated, using the same needle, and merely attaching the second syringe. Following the procedure, the patient is instructed to exercise his hand and arm for a few minutes to disperse any paraldehyde that might still be lying in the vein, and so cause thrombosis.

This method is used for the diagnosis of whether a right to left shunt is present or not, but in five cases Prinzmetal's suggested method has been used to assess the percentage of blood shunted from right to left. The method consists, briefly, of the measurement of the arm-tongue time using successively larger amounts of agent. It is only applicable in cases where the shunt does not exceed 50 per cent. The theory upon which the method is based postulates that any substance arriving in the right ventricle (for example) will proceed along the two alternative pathways tongue and lungs (assuming a shunt to be present), in amounts proportional to the volume of blood passing to those organs. There is also a threshold concentration necessary at the taste buds before the subject can appreciate the taste. It follows, therefore, that if less than 50 per cent of blood is shunted into the aorta, the injection of increasing amounts of agent will cause a threshold concentration to be reached first in the blood passing via the lungs to the tongue, and hence the first sensation will be noticed in a relatively long, or normal arm-tongue time. Subsequently, a concentration will be reached in the shunted blood that

will produce a taste and when this occurs the arm-tongue time measured will suddenly become shortened.

If the amount necessary to produce the initial longer time be called A, and that required to cause the sudden change, B, then it can be shown that —

$$\text{Percentage of blood shunted} = \frac{A}{A+B} \times 100$$

In practice the technique is similar in all respects to that previously described, except that amounts increasing by 0.2 ml are injected until first the longer, and then the shorter time is obtained.

RESULTS

Of the 36 patients investigated, 35 were suffering from congenital heart disease. The remaining patient (always grossly cyanosed, and for 29 years thought to be a case of Fallot's tetralogy) suffered from pulmonary haemangioma.

There were 3 patients with congenital heart disease who were not cyanosed.

The average age of patients was 15 years and the range was from 6 to 41 years.

Group I Cyanosed Patients in whom both Circulation Times were Estimated

There were 28 patients, 20 were shown to have a right to left shunt, and in 8 the times were against a shunt. Details of these 8 are shown in Table I.

The results show failure in 3 (Cases O115, H121, and CB14), and a probable failure in a further one (Case H126) where angiocardiology confirmed the presence of a shunt. In the 4 cases at the top of the table the absence of a right to left shunt was confirmed.

Group II Cyanosed Patients in whom only the Arm-Tongue Time was Performed

There were 5 patients in this group, and all of these were shown to have a right to left shunt.

Group III Acyanotic Patients in whom both Times were Performed

There were 2 patients in this group and neither was suspected clinically of having a right to left shunt, in one a patent ductus arteriosus has recently been ligated (Case O122) but in the other angiocardiology very unexpectedly suggested a right to left shunt (Case C206).

Group IV Patients in whom Prinzmetal's Method was used (See Table II)

TABLE I
PATIENTS NOT DIAGNOSED AS HAVING A RIGHT TO LEFT SHUNT

Reference No	Sex and age	Arm-tongue (seconds)	Arm-lung (seconds)	Diagnosis	Autopsy
(Baker 1949)	M 29	Decholin 14.0	8.5	Lung haemangioma	Confirmed No shunt
H117	F 30	Saccharin 17.5	13.0	Valvular pulmonary stenosis	Confirmed No shunt
P215*	F 20	Saccharin 33.0	22.6	Dilated pulmonary artery + aortic regurgitation	Alive No shunt†
P212†	F 9	Saccharin 16.7	11.0	Valvular pulmonary stenosis	Confirmed No shunt
H126	F 9	Saccharin 13.0	6.0	? Fallot's tetralogy	Alive Shunt present†
O115	M 27	Decholin 26.0	15.0	Fallot's tetralogy	Confirmed Shunt present
H121	F 24	Saccharin 17.2	9.2	Fallot's tetralogy	Confirmed Shunt present
CB14	F 13	Saccharin 13.8	8.4	Fallot's tetralogy	Confirmed Shunt present

* Cyanosis of peripheral type

† No cyanosis at rest

‡ Confirmed by angiocardiography

The result was specially useful in Case P225 as he was not obviously cyanosed at rest the final diagnosis was Eisenmenger's complex. It was rather surprising in Case O111 as she too was hardly cyanosed at rest and was thought to have valvular pulmonary stenosis with a patent foramen ovale.

Cases 0070 and 0075 were thought to have Fallot's tetralogy.

Case 0207 was thought to have valvular pulmonary stenosis and to have developed a right to left shunt later in life. This was confirmed at operation and the valve was divided by Mr R. C. Brock.

She made an uneventful recovery, with striking improvement, already being able to walk about the hospital freely, whereas before she had been virtually bedridden. It has been possible therefore to compare her circulation times before and after operation.

	Arm-Tongue (seconds)	Arm-Lung (seconds)	Hæmoglobin%
Pre-operative	12.2	10.0	122
Post-operative	10.2	6.8	106

The first difference is the overall reduction in circulation times following operation, coupled with an increase in difference between the arm-tongue and arm-lung times. The lowering of hæmoglobin which occurred may have helped to shorten the times, but it also seems likely that the partial or complete relief of the valvular obstruction has contributed to this effect, and the reduction in pressure in the right ventricle has diminished the shunt

which had been taking place through the inter-auricular septum.

TABLE II

Reference No	Sex and age	Amount producing longer time	Amount producing shorter time	Shunt
0111*	F 8	variable	results	probably 50%
0075	M 6	0.50 ml	1.50 ml	25%
0070	M 8	1.00 ml	3.00 ml	25%
0207	F 26	1.80 ml	3.00 ml	37%
P225*	M 13	1.00 ml	5.00 ml	17%

* Cyanosis on exertion only

DISCUSSION

The results presented above have attempted to show that the estimation of the arm-tongue time together with the arm-lung time is a simple and safe method to be used in the diagnosis of the presence of a right to left shunt. It is most important that both times be estimated together, and the only satisfactory evidence of a shunt is that they should agree within two seconds of each other. This alone can indicate that substances introduced into the right side of the heart reach a point on the great and lesser circuits simultaneously, and there must be a communication between the two before the lung capillaries are reached. Further, the blood must be passing from right to left. It is important to note that by no means every case of Fallot's

tetralogy or allied condition shows a markedly shortened arm-tongue time, as might be thought, and indeed as the scanty references in previous work report. In this series five patients had normal arm-tongue times, though in each case the arm-lung time equalled this, which demonstrates the possible error that may occur if the arm-tongue time is taken alone. The chief reason for the failure of the arm-tongue time to be shortened in every case, is probably that the compensatory polycythæmia causes the opposite effect, namely slowing of the time, as shown by Blumgart in cases of polycythæmia rubra vera. In the five cases mentioned here it is noteworthy that the hæmoglobin concentration was 140 per cent or more in each. It is appropriate to comment upon the disparity in actual values obtained for circulation times, using the methods described above and angiocardiology. The normal values stated previously will only hold good if relatively small amounts of agent are introduced into the circulation. Experience with angiocardigrams performed on some of the patients used in this series shows that the opaque dye may appear in the aorta two seconds after injection, giving a grossly shortened arm-tongue time. This is to be explained by the greater quantity of dye injected, namely 50 ml or more, which consequently causes considerable changes in venous return to the heart.

The method has certain disadvantages. It is, firstly, a subjective method and the patient's intelligent co-operation is needed. This requirement effectively rules out its use in very young children, six years being probably the youngest age at which a satisfactory result may be obtained. Since the patients attending a congenital heart clinic for advice will show a high proportion of young children many will not be able to undergo the test. Lack of intelligence, even in older persons, apprehension, and general dislike of venepuncture are all factors that have tended to obscure results, and in this series there have been twelve failures from these particular causes.

The results show three subjects in whom a right to left shunt was not suspected upon the circulation times, but in whom autopsy had since shown this contention to be incorrect. These failures all occurred within a short time of each other, when differing amounts of saccharin to be injected were being tested, and the reason for failure seems to be that too little was used. If, as seems reasonable, these patients had a shunt of less than 50 per cent of total, then the injection of too small an amount of saccharin might cause a taste threshold to be reached only by the longer route. There is some

support for this, since in the only one of the three cases that had undergone cardiac catheterization, this investigation showed evidence of a moderate shunt only. Since these unsatisfactory results, the amount of saccharin injected has been raised, and no further trouble has been encountered.

Brief experience with Prinzmetal's method has shown this to be tolerably satisfactory, but a rather higher degree of intelligence and co-operation is required. The possible errors are great, and it has been found that repetition of the injection of similar amounts does not always produce the same response. It is unlikely that accuracy to within less than 10 per cent may be achieved, and in any case, in this context, the method is subject to the criticism that providing the presence of a shunt has been diagnosed, the clinical condition of the patient, reinforced by arterial oxygen estimations is of greater importance in indicating urgency of treatment than a doubtfully accurate estimation of the percentage of blood shunted.

SUMMARY

Results of estimating the arm-tongue and arm-lung times in a series of 36 patients suffering from suspected congenital heart disease are given. The agents used were 20 per cent sodium dehydrocholate and 50 per cent saccharin for the arm-tongue time, and 5 per cent paraldehyde for the arm-lung time.

Reference is made to the complications reported by previous workers, and in this series no reactions of any severity were observed. Prinzmetal's method of estimating the percentage of blood shunted in patients known to possess a right to left shunt was used in five cases, and a description of the method is given.

The results show that the measurement of the arm-tongue and arm-lung times together is a reliable, simple, and safe method to be used for the diagnosis of a right to left shunt, and failure was encountered in only three cases. The reasons for these failures are discussed. It is concluded that the single estimation of the arm-tongue time is not a reliable guide to the presence or absence of a shunt. The results using Prinzmetal's method show this to be of doubtful value. A discussion upon the advantages and disadvantages of the method is given.

I should like to thank Dr Maunce Campbell and Mr R C Brock for their encouragement and advice, and for permission to use their patients for this investigation.

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MORBUS CÆRULEUS

A STUDY OF 50 CASES AFTER THE BLALOCK-TAUSSIG OPERATION

BY

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The Blalock-Taussig operation for morbus cœruleus was described in February 1945. The position reached in September 1947 was presented to the International Conference of Physicians at that time and has since been published by Taussig (1948) and Blalock (1948a). The steps that led up to this operation and the subsequent developments have been described recently (Campbell, 1948), so will not be referred to further. The early results of the first 18 operations at Guy's Hospital, some by Mr Blalock and some by one of us (R C B), have been described (Campbell, 1948), the earlier cases had then been followed for six months.

In the present paper we wish to describe the results in the first 50 patients operated on at Guy's Hospital with a systemic-pulmonary anastomosis for cyanotic heart disease, all since September, 1947, by R C B.

All the patients were thought to have Fallot's tetralogy or some closely related form of congenital heart disease, except three (Cases 33, 42, and 49), these three had a similar clinical picture, but with left ventricular preponderance in the electrocardiogram, which nearly always indicates tricuspid atresia or stenosis with a non functioning right ventricle (Brown, 1936). The earlier cases have now been followed for from 12 to 15 months and the most recent for 6 months. We are not including in the figures that follow 6 patients who have been submitted to operation for pulmonary valvulotomy during this same period.

Age incidence. Most of the patients were between 3 and 15 and there were rather more boys than girls (28 to 22). One was two and a half years old, 5 were three, 32 were between four and ten, 7 between eleven and sixteen, and 5 (by chance, all men) were between 19 and 27 years of age.

Blalock has suggested 3 as the minimum age for operation except in emergencies, and 10 as the ideal upper limit. The operative risk is much greater in

patients under 3 and there seems more risk that cyanosis will return, perhaps because the anastomosis fails to grow as the child develops. Partly because these two risks are not likely to diminish suddenly at 3 years of age, and partly because with the large numbers waiting it seems less harmful to delay operation from 3 to 5 than from say 10 to 12, we have tended, latterly, to make 5 years the earliest age.

We have, however, no evidence from our cases that operation is more dangerous or less successful at 3 years of age. We do, so far, find it more dangerous in those over 20, but it will be many years before one can avoid the dilemma of operating on older patients with an increased risk, or allowing them to deteriorate and die.

SYMPTOMS AND SIGNS

Disability. The disability of these patients was extreme. Many selected for operation were severe cases who were deteriorating and could wait no longer, rather than good operative risks. Twenty-six were put in the most severe grade (IV) which means that they were made dyspnoeic by a few steps and could rarely walk more than 25 yards (Campbell 1948). One of these (Case 43) said he had once walked 100 yards as a great occasion, as he was 13 and attended an ordinary school in his wheeled chair it emphasizes the disability. Another 19 were in the next grade (III) which means very severe limitation as they could not play outside without frequent rests and could only walk 50 to 200 yards. Three of these, aged 19, 25, and 27, had at one time walked 2 or 3 miles but had become much worse during the last few years.

There were 5 who could do something more than this and were placed in grade II, but even they were very incapacitated. Two, aged 19 and 16, had been

able to walk one or two miles slowly but were most dissatisfied with being 'unable to do anything' and were enthusiastic for operation whatever the risks. The other three were younger and could walk half to one mile on a good day but often they could not do as much as this. As further evidence that even these were moderately severe cases, all except one had hæmoglobin percentages between 150 and 126.

The large proportion of older patients among the last eight suggests that they had survived because their condition was less severe but was now deteriorating. All cases of Fallot's tetralogy have not, of course, such severe disability but the worst have been chosen for early operation.

In addition, some of these patients were becoming rapidly worse so that operation was expedited. For example, Case 46 attended a second time after three months the distance she could walk had shortened from 150 to 50 yards, her cyanosis and the clubbing of her fingers had become worse. The slightest exertion, even dressing provoked almost daily attacks of loss of control of her limbs with semi-consciousness.

Our experience suggests that when a patient with Fallot's tetralogy starts deteriorating the prognosis is grave, and several times when this has happened death has not been long delayed.

Cyanosis All these patients had been cyanosed from early infancy and all had clubbed fingers. The measurement of cyanosis is difficult and is made more so by its quick variation with exertion and temperature. In bed in a warm ward many of the patients look so much less blue than as out-patients that they are hardly recognizable. With Dr W. D. Brinton we made some attempts at colour matching but they have not so far been successful. The relationship of cyanosis and polycythæmia is reciprocal, the lack of oxygen causing the polycythæmia and this in its turn increasing the appearance of cyanosis.

The estimate of cyanosis was made without knowing the hæmoglobin percentage. In general terms, those in whom it was from 110 to 129 had been placed in grade II or III as regards their cyanosis, those from 130 to 139, in grade III, and those from 140 to 160, in grade III or IV. These and some other details are given in Table I. But there was no very close correspondence and sometimes rather surprising contrasts.

The cyanosis was generally severe (grade III,* 25 cases) or very severe (grade IV, 15 cases). In 9 it was less than this and often less than would have been expected from the disability, though it was always present even with the patient at rest in

these 9 the hæmoglobin averaged 122 per cent.

In one patient in particular (Case 26) where the disability was very great, the cyanosis and clubbing slight and the hæmoglobin 116 per cent, we were somewhat hesitant about operation but the result was just as successful as in others. The arterial oxygen saturation was 80 per cent falling to 75 per cent with very trivial leg movements (Dr Zak). If the disability is severe enough, relatively slight cyanosis should not as a rule be a contra-indication to operation.

Onset of cyanosis The age from which cyanosis was first noticed is of great importance. Naturally, if there is an over-riding aorta and a ventricular septal defect, venous blood will be passing into the aorta from birth or soon after. Cyanosis may be noted at once depending on the amount of shunt, and will become more obvious as greater demands are made on the circulation and as polycythæmia develops. It is most important not to mistake temporary cyanosis *at birth* for cyanosis that has persisted *from birth*.

Cyanosis was noted from an earlier age than 18 months in all except one. The actual figures were from birth or soon after in 30 of the 50, from between 2 and 6 months in 9, from between 7 and 10 months in 6, from between 15 and 18 months in 4, and at 24 months in Case 32.

Of the 5 where cyanosis was not noted till after 15 months, 4 seemed ordinary cases of Fallot's tetralogy though one lived to 27 the fifth (Case 32) had pulmonary stenosis and transposition of the aorta so that cyanosis might have been expected from birth. It is strange, but can hardly be more than a coincidence, that 3 of these 5 patients died after operation.

Polycythæmia The hæmoglobin percentage varied from 110 to 160 and averaged 137. The highest figures were 160 (Case 35), 158 (Case 29), 157 (Case 6), and 153 (Case 22). All these except the first looked severely polycythæmic.

The red blood cells were generally between 6.0 and 9.0 and averaged 7.8 millions, but in two it was 11.6 and 11.1 millions (Cases 41 and 47), the next highest being 10.1 million and several of 9.0 million or just over. Curiously enough these two had not specially high hæmoglobin percentages, the figures being 140 and 137 so that the colour indices were unusually low—0.58 and 0.60 respectively.

The hæmatocrit reading was generally between 60 and 85 and averaged 74. As might be expected, it generally agreed more closely but not very closely with the red cell count. The highest readings were 94 (Case 41, one of the highest red cell counts), 92 (Case 29, one of the highest hæmoglobins), 88, 87,

* Grade III Cyanosis moderately severe *at rest* and obvious at a glance. Grade IV Cyanosis gross, *at rest*.

TABLE I

CASES OF MORBUS CÆRULEUS SUBMITTED TO BLALOCK-TAUSSIG OPERATION AT GUY'S HOSPITAL

Case No	Initials	Sex and Age	Cyanosis	Disability	Hæmoglobin (percentage)	Red cells (millions)	Hæmatocrit	Hæmoglobin 3 or 4 weeks after operation	Reference No
1A	AC	M 19	4	3	148	10.0	78	Died	P01A
19	SF	M 4	2-3	3	112	6.0	58	100	CB04
20	ME	F 5	2-3	3	110	5.9	63	100	0018
21	TG	M 4	3	3-	138	8.0	(68)	127	C004
22	ML	F 13	4	4	153	7.2	87	N C *	C005
23	DS	M 19	4	4-	130	6.0	77	106	0015
24	CM	F 6	4	4	148	8.8	81	128	0019
25	JR	F 6	2-3	4	140	7.4	70	101	0005
26	JL	M 15	2	4	116	8.4	57	88	P069
27	DF	F 10	3+	3	150	8.0	83	N C	0027
28	JL	F 3	4	4	107	6.6	64	N C	H113
29	TH	M 10	4	4	158	8.2	92	122	0036
30	GF	F 7	3-	3-	133	8.0	72	—	P045
31	VS	F 2	2-3	2-3	136	7.4	72	110	C008
32	JH	M 11	3-	4	144	8.0	74	Died	P054
33	PS†	M 4	3	4	132	9.2	85	109	0022
34	AW	F 9	3	2+	118	6.4	63	97	H128
35	MC	F 7	3	4	160	7.9	67	Died	P037
36	PR	F 16	2+	2+	126	5.3	58	89	C007
37	JW	M 5	4	4	136	8.4	81	103	P102
38	CB	F 7	3-	4	142	10.1	81	Died	H106
39	PC	M 10	3	3	139	8.3	87	114	CB09
40	DS	M 5	3+	3	140	7.7	71	105	P089
41	JH	F 5	4	4	140	11.6	94	115	CB17
42	SH†	M 19	3	2+	144	8.0	—	112	P057
43	TH	M 13	3	4	142	7.2	69	—	P056
44	GS	F 11	4	4	142	8.6	84	110	H120
45	SN	M 3	2	4	109	6.6	—	92	0017
46	KC	F 15	3	4	135	8.9	76	—	0105
47	GK	M 11	3	3	137	11.1	—	115	0184
48	RB	M 27	4	3	144	9.1	85	Died	0115
49	JC†	M 8	4	4	125	8.6	73	123	0007
50	MS	F 13	3	2+	138	7.2	—	110	0140

* N C = No change as no effective anastomosis

† Tricuspid atresia

Cases 1-17 have been described previously (Campbell, 1948)

and 86, several others were very close to this

As would be expected, the red cell count increases regularly with the hæmoglobin percentage in the lower ranges, but to our surprise this parallel increase is not continued in the higher ranges. In Table II the cases have been classified according to the hæmoglobin and it will be seen that the red cells and hæmatocrit increase as the hæmoglobin goes up from 112 to 134, but there is no further increase either in the red cells or in the hæmatocrit as the hæmoglobin goes up from 134 to 153. The disadvantages of a red cell count over 8.0 million may produce some mechanism in the body that prevents a further rise, but if so the two cases with counts over 11.0 million are all the more surprising.

Apparently as the hæmoglobin rises above 130 per cent the red cell count and hæmatocrit do not on the average rise further with the result that the colour index rises towards unity.

Clubbing of the fingers and toes All these cases showed moderate or severe clubbing of the fingers and toes, and Case 26 (whose hæmoglobin was 11.6 per cent) was the only one who did not have the complete picture as he had curvature of the nails without any noticeable broadening. Fifteen were marked as having moderate rather than severe clubbing and these included 8 with hæmoglobin percentages of from 11.0 to 12.6, but the others were about 14.0. Six were marked as having unusually severe clubbing their hæmoglobin ranged from

TABLE II
AVERAGE BLOOD COUNTS GROUPED BY THE
HEMOGLOBIN LEVEL

Hemoglobin		No of cases	Average red cell count (millions)	Average hemato- crit	Average colour index
Range	Average				
110-119	112	8	6.5	62	0.86
120-129	124	4	7.2	63	0.86
130-139	134	12	8.3*	77	0.81*
140-149	145	16	8.2	80	0.88
150-160	153	10	7.9	76	0.97
110-129	116	12	6.7	63	0.86
130-160	144	38	8.1	78	0.88
All cases	137	50	7.8	74	0.87

* Without the two cases with counts over 11.0 million these figures would be 7.8 and 0.85

130 to 160 per cent. This correlation between clubbing and polycythæmia might be expected. Fig. 1 and 2 show severe clubbing of the same fingers a year after operation when the degree of clubbing has become much less.

Squatting. Of these 50 patients, 41 had a history of squatting and 7 gave no such history, there were

2 with no information. Fig. 3 illustrates the typical position. Taussig considers squatting almost constant in Fallot's tetralogy, but our evidence is against this though we find it does occur in about 80 per cent. It seems unlikely that the diagnosis was wrong in 7 who were not squatting. One had tricuspid atresia (Case 42) and the operation was as successful in him as it was in 3 others who did not squat (Cases 5, 10, and 36). It is curious, but again perhaps no more than a coincidence, that 3 of the relatively small number of unsuccessful results (Cases 11, 22, and 27) occurred among this small number of non-squatters.

Mental and physical development. It is surprising that the mental development should be so good, considering the severity of the anoxæmia. All but two of these children were normal or often above the average although, of course, many were educationally backward. We have used the age of walking and talking as rough measurements.

Generally the child walked at a normal age but a few were late. Most children (33 cases) started walking at or before two years but it was delayed in 12 till three years, in 2 till four years, in 1 till five years, and in 2 till seven years. There was no mental defect in these children and the last two boys seemed of average or more than average intelligence.

Most children (38 cases) started talking at a

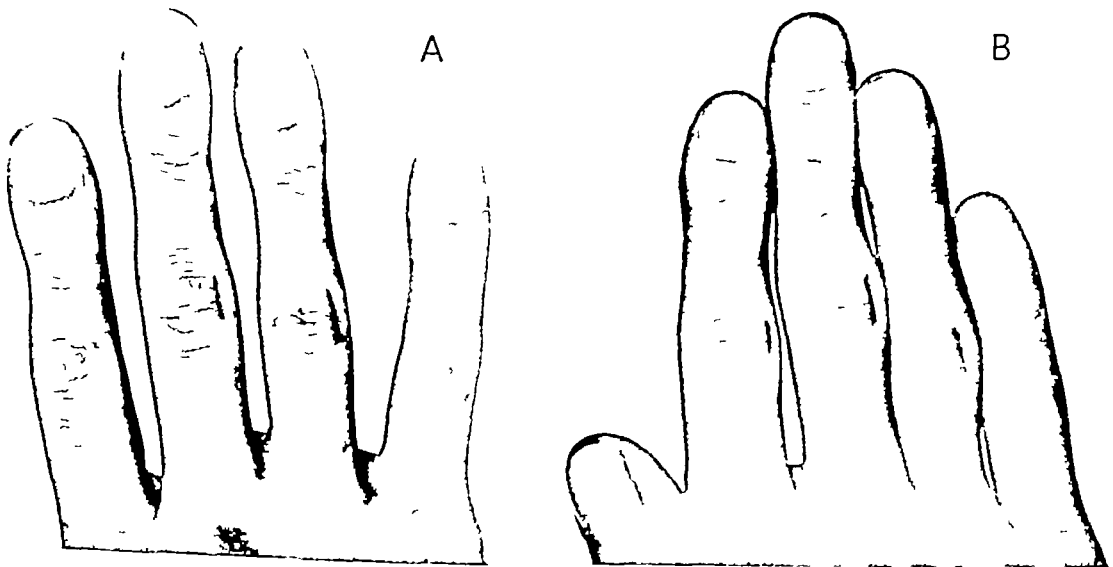


Fig. 1—Clubbing of fingers and its disappearance after operation. This position shows the disappearance of the broadening from side to side and some diminution of the curvature. With moderate clubbing it may disappear completely in five or six months but with a more severe grade such as this something is left permanently and the illustration is nearly a year after operation. Case 23.

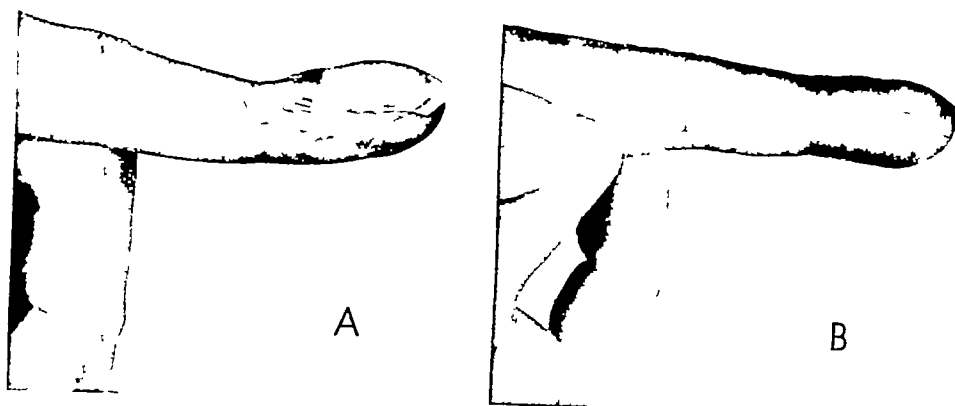


FIG 2—Clubbing of the fingers before and a year after operation, showing diminution of the broadening from front to back and of the curvature, and a more normal appearance of the skin Case 23

normal age, generally between 12 and 18 months. Seven were said to have been able to talk at two years, 2 at two and a half years, and 3 at three years.

Only 4 (Cases 19, 28, 35, and 49) were slow both in walking and talking. Case 19 was mentally backward and Case 35, who had a cataract also, following maternal rubella during pregnancy, was rather backward. All the others were normal mentally.

Most of the children were under weight and their parents always complained of difficulty in getting them to eat. On the average they were only slightly under height so that their thinness was very obvious. Often the chest was badly developed with some tendency to pigeon chest and to a Harrison's sulcus. The veins over the chest were often more visible than normally.

PHYSICAL SIGNS

The heart is generally of normal size and anything more than very slight enlargement should raise a suspicion that the lesion is not Fallot's tetralogy or is complicated by the addition of some other defect. The size and shape is dealt with more fully in the section on radiology.

Systolic murmur and thrill There is generally a *systolic murmur* in the second, third, and fourth spaces on the left, becoming fainter towards the apex. The murmur is often loud enough to be conducted widely, sometimes to the right side or to the back. Sometimes the pitch of the murmur differs over the pulmonary area and lower down in

the fourth left space and this may be due to there being two different murmurs produced by the pulmonary stenosis and by the ventricular septal defect.

The loudness and harshness of the murmur varies a great deal. There were 4 cases where no systolic murmur was heard (Cases 9, 22, 41, and 48), all were of severe degree and in the last, who died, there was a calcified pulmonary valve. In 2 of these 4 and in 2 others, triple rhythm with an addition of a third heart sound was so obvious as to be almost the main physical sign. It was equally common for the murmur to be described as soft or faint (13 cases), as average (13 cases), or as loud, rough, or harsh (14 cases+6 special cases). The 6 special cases with a harsh or rough murmur were the 3 with tricuspid atresia, Case 28 with a large pulmonary artery, and Cases 32 and 35 with unusual features discovered post-mortem (see page 192).

Such a harsh or rough murmur (or thrill of well marked intensity) is, therefore, a reason for considering carefully if the diagnosis is correct, though it may be found fairly often in an ordinary case of Fallot's tetralogy, perhaps indicating that the stenosis is fairly severe, but not that there is atresia, when a murmur may be absent.

In none of these cases was any diastolic murmur heard, but some others with the features of Fallot's tetralogy and a diastolic murmur have been deferred for fuller investigation.

A *thrill* was present in more than half, but generally it was faint and might only be felt at times or after exertion. It was usually maximal



FIG 3—Case 33 with tricuspid atresia and non-functioning right ventricle. A typical position adopted in squatting, though in many of the older patients the knees are brought still closer to the chest

in the pulmonary area but occasionally towards the apex. As would be expected it was closely correlated with the harshness of the systolic murmur. The thrill was never of great intensity, it was of moderate intensity in 13 cases, but this included the 3 with tricuspid atresia and the 2 with unusual findings post-mortem. It was difficult to feel or only felt occasionally or after exercise in 17 cases. No thrill was felt at the many examinations in 20 cases.

Pulmonary second sound Auscultation should be carried out with the patient sitting up and lying down and during each phase of respiration, before a decision is taken about the intensity of the second sound.

Diminution of the second sound in the pulmonary area has been traditionally regarded as an important sign in the diagnosis of pulmonary stenosis. As far as Fallot's tetralogy is concerned this is not so, the second sound is generally normal and is as likely

to be a little increased as diminished. It was often as loud on the left as on the right side at the base.

Any great increase, however, is likely to indicate that the pulmonary pressure is raised and that on screening a large pulsating pulmonary artery will be seen and that the lung fields will be congested instead of clear. This is specially true if the second sound has a drum-like quality. Visible pulsation in the pulmonary area, and palpable diastolic shock also suggest that the lesion is not Fallot's tetralogy and that the pulmonary pressure is raised. We would emphasize that the significance of the change in the pulmonary second sound depends on a sound that is *much increased* and not to one that is *slightly increased*.

In these 50 cases it was recorded as normal in 17, as diminished in 11, and as slightly increased in 13, in 9 it was more notably increased. These 9 included one where the pulmonary pressure was high (Case 28), one with tricuspid atresia (Case 42), one with severe cyanosis who was hardly helped by operation (Case 22), and one who had infundibular stenosis and a transposed aorta (Case 32), but the other five seemed ordinary cases who were helped by operation.

No case of Fallot's tetralogy has had a drum-like pulmonary second sound, even if the pulmonary artery was more prominent than usual. A diastolic murmur immediately after this sound was never heard in Fallot's tetralogy though both these findings are not uncommon in other types of cyanotic congenital heart disease.

Blood pressure The blood pressure in these cases averaged 106/73, though sometimes it was hard to get an accurate diastolic reading. In nearly every case it was within the range 115-95/80-65 and in 4 cases where it was about 127/90, all were over 15 years of age. In some of the older patients it seems to be increasing a little, still with a small pulse pressure.

RADIOLOGY OF THE HEART

In the account of the first 18 cases (Campbell, 1948), the size and shape of the heart was discussed at some length and the difficulty of describing any characteristic shape was emphasized. Less than half had hearts that were sabot shaped and the other half had more normal shaped hearts, sometimes with a gross hollow pulmonary bay, but often with an almost straight left border or occasionally even with some slight prominence in the region of the pulmonary conus. The findings are much the same in the present series and we are not discussing the question further.

We would, however, emphasize three negative points as of the greatest importance.

The density of the lung The most decisive—and perhaps the most decisive point in the diagnosis of a condition that can be helped by systemic pulmonary anastomosis—is the absence of noticeable pulsation in the lung roots, with an absence of density in the lung fields as a whole.

The size of the heart The second important point is the size of the heart. In most cases of Fallot's tetralogy, however great the disability and cyanosis, the heart is of normal size or even smaller. Anything more than trivial enlargement of the heart makes one hesitant about operation, partly because it suggests that there are greater complications in the congenital abnormality, and partly because the heart is less able to stand any enlargement that may follow the creation of an artificial ductus arteriosus. This is discussed more fully in the next section.

The pulmonary artery The third point, of almost equal importance, is that there should be no undue prominence of the pulmonary artery and better still, that there should be a striking hollow in the pulmonary region, though as already stated, some patients have a rather straight left border. There may even be a convex projection in the region of the conus just below the origin of the pulmonary artery due to the prominence of the infundibulum distal to the infundibular stenosis. Or there may be a dilatation of the pulmonary artery beyond a pulmonary valvular stenosis but this is rare with Fallot's tetralogy, and should show no pulsation.

It is desirable that one should be able to see both pulmonary branches, because then a pulmonary vessel is available for the anastomosis and there is no risk of the patient dying suddenly from arrest of the pulmonary blood flow when one pulmonary artery is clamped. This accident occurred in Case 17, in Case 27 no operation was possible because the pulmonary artery was too small. Looking back at the X-ray films we think that in the latter, it should have been possible to tell this before operation, but in the former it would not have been easy, as there was relative density round the lung roots, presumably owing to the collateral circulation.

In many cases, the hollow in the region of the pulmonary artery in the P-A view and the large aortic window in the left oblique, together with the absence of pulsation and the absence of density in the lung fields, make the diagnosis easy after radio-scopic, and there seems no need for any further investigation. In others the prominence of the pulmonary artery and the density of the lungs with or without pulsation far out in the lung fields at once makes it obvious that the patient is not suitable for operation. But there remain others where the decision is difficult, the density produced by the

collateral circulation causes one of the greatest difficulties but here there is no pulsation and more pin point scattered shadows. Our first mistake in this direction was in Case 28 where we had been doubtful about the prominence of the lung fields but had decided there was pulmonary stenosis. However at operation the pulmonary artery was found to be large and pulsating with a pressure well over 80 mm of mercury. This was in a child who was unable to stand and had been screened lying down.

The right (I) oblique position on radiography will help in showing if there is any undue prominence or pulsation of the pulmonary artery or of its left branch. The left (II) oblique will define the relative size of the ventricles and will generally show the left of normal size with the right somewhat but generally not greatly, enlarged. It also helps to show the size of the pulmonary artery and of the aorta.

The aortic arch. A barium swallow is necessary to determine whether the aortic arch is on the left or right. As the barium is swallowed it is often of help to keep one's eyes fixed on the aortic knuckle, as the barium may sometimes follow a preliminary curve to the right before it reaches the aortic knuckle and if this is small it may be missed. It is hardly necessary to say that the barium should be of thick consistency.

The aortic arch was right-sided in 14 and left sided in 36 of the cases which is nearly the usual proportion of 1 in 4.

THE SIZE OF THE HEART

The heart size is not easy to estimate with accuracy, and general opinion ranks inspection of the film and still better, of the heart on radiography, as a better method than any specific measurement.

The following estimates of the heart sizes have been decided by one of us (M.C.) in retrospect, mainly on the P-A films, because these are easiest for comparison from case to case and were always available. Some attention was paid to the cardiothoracic ratio (c.t.r.) in each but the decision was made mainly on the general appearance. It is therefore, interesting to see how these estimates compare with the c.t.r. which are more useful for conveying an idea to others. They are given below against the estimated size of the heart, the figures in brackets refers to the number of cases.

Very small	
Small	37-43 (4)
Small normal	41-49 (10)
Normal	45-50 (5)
Large normal	45-52 (15)
Enlarged	49-54 (8)
	52-61 (8)

In 14 cases the hearts were regarded as small and in 8 only as enlarged, though possibly some people might have counted the 8 "large normal" as enlarged. The remaining 28 (or 20) were regarded as of usual size.

The 8 that were enlarged will be discussed in more detail, and taking them from the largest downwards they were as follows.

Case 35 (c.t.r. 62) died after operation and there was a single auricle as well as the other features of Fallot's tetralogy.

Case 33 (c.t.r. 61) had tricuspid atresia with a non functioning right ventricle and although the operation has been most successful and the patient is able to lead a life quite unlike anything previously, the heart has subsequently enlarged more than we like.

Case 28 (c.t.r. 56) had some doubt about the lung fields before operation and at operation the pulmonary artery was found to be large with a high pressure and the patient probably had Eisenmenger's complex.

Case 11 (c.t.r. 55) was not helped by operation but we thought this was due to technical difficulties with the anastomosis and did not indicate a wrong diagnosis.

The next four fall into a category of slighter enlargement.

Cases 8 and 47 (c.t.r. 52 and 53) seemed to be ordinary cases of Fallot's tetralogy and the operation was satisfactory, Case 8 being 25 years old.

Case 48 (c.t.r. 52) was an ordinary case of Fallot's tetralogy who died after operation, he was 27.

Case 32 (c.t.r. 52) had the aorta arising from the right ventricle and he, too, died after operation. It will be seen that among these 8 cases there were several where the diagnosis was more complicated than straightforward Fallot's tetralogy or where the patients did not do well, and the greatest care should be exercised in choosing any patient with significant cardiac enlargement.

There were four other patients where we decided to call the heart large normal, though it was difficult to be sure it was not slightly enlarged. It was interesting that the c.t.r. were much the same as the four just described, where we thought there was enlargement.

Cases 45 and 30 (c.t.r. 54 and 53) seemed to be ordinary examples of Fallot's tetralogy and did well after operation. Case 38 (c.t.r. 53) who died after operation had Fallot's tetralogy and Case 49 (c.t.r. 52.5) had tricuspid atresia and did well after operation. As three of these did well and there is no reason to think that the one death was due to the heart size, it is probable that similar cases can reasonably be included as suitable for operation.

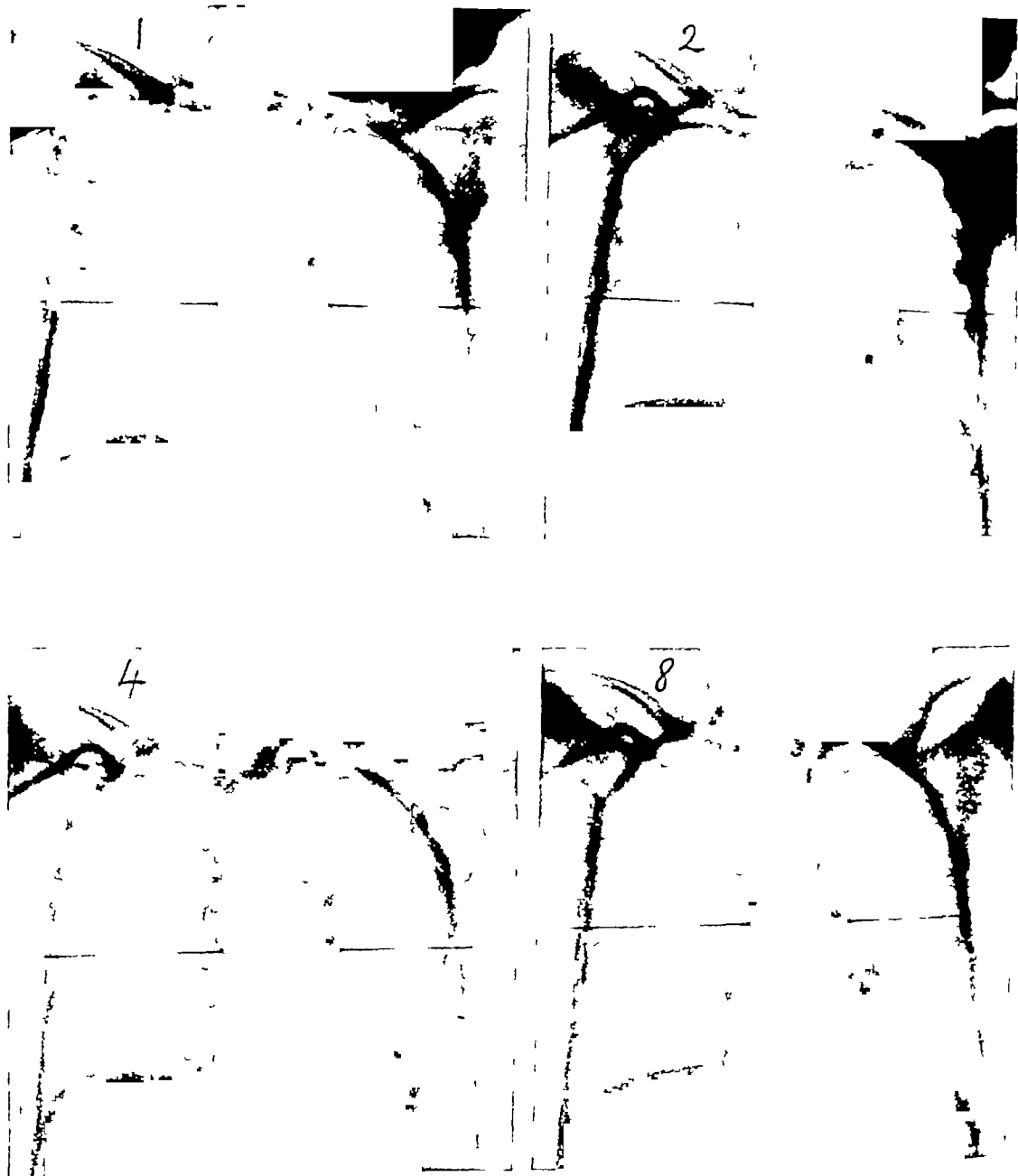


FIG 4—Case 39 Fallot's tetralogy The film at 1 second shows normal filling of the right auricle The film at 2 seconds shows striking filling of the large aorta arching to the right and some filling of its branches There is evidence of filling of the left ventricle There is no significant change in the pulmonary arteries The film at 4 seconds still shows the aorta but less clearly and the subclavian more clearly The filling of the pulmonary arteries is trivial but this was the maximum reached In the film at 8 seconds the shadows are fading though the aorta can still be seen The pulmonary arteries and the lungs as a whole are lighter than at 4 seconds The conclusion is a large right to left shunt with a right-sided aortic arch and a fairly severe pulmonary stenosis

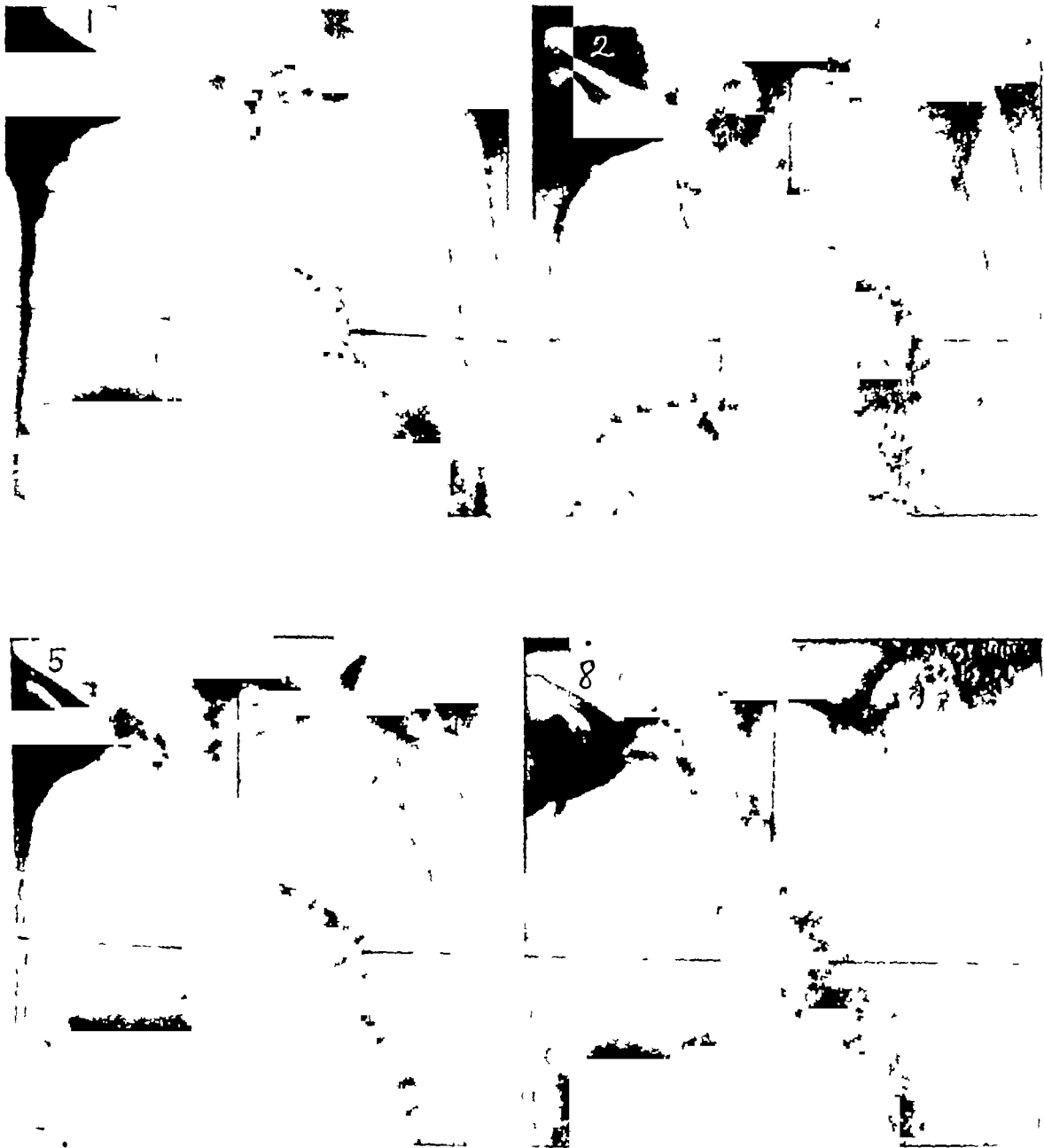


FIG 5—Case 47 Fallot's tetralogy. The film at 1 second shows normal filling of the SVC and right auricle. The film at 2 seconds shows dense filling of the right ventricle and of the aorta arching to the right and of its branches as far as the subclavian in the left axilla, indicating an aorta in free communication with the right ventricle, the dye has not passed out to the borders of the left ventricle. At the same time, the pulmonary arteries have begun to fill. The film at 5 seconds has been chosen because it shows as much pulmonary filling as at any time and obviously little blood has entered the lungs. The degree of filling is a far better indication of pulmonary stenosis than the time at which dye can first be seen in the pulmonary arteries. The right ventricle and aorta are clearing. The film at 8 seconds shows that the heart as a whole is becoming clearer. The conclusion is a large right to left shunt with a moderate degree of pulmonary stenosis.

and that if the heart can be passed as not much enlarged a relatively high c t r is not a reason for deciding against operation

We have no example to report of a successful operation in a patient with Fallot's tetralogy with the c t r. over 55. But this may be partly due to selection of patients who had not the larger hearts, and this is a question that still needs more experience. We are glad we did not exclude the boy with tricuspid atresia with c t r of 61 but whether his improvement can last as long as in some of the others remains to be seen.

From our present experience and from the tables of Lincoln and Spillman (1928), of Maresh and Washburn (1938), and of Caffey (1945) it seems that under the age of 2 years the c t r averages 49 and varies between 40 and 65 (60 after one year) in normal children. These figures do not concern our present purpose directly but may help in advising parents whether their children may possibly be helped by operation later.

From 2 to 5 years of age the normal range lies between 43 and 52, and from 6 years onwards the average c t r falls slightly from 47 to 45, with a range from about 40 to 50. The original figures of Danzer as long ago as 1919 gave 39 to 50 as the adult range with an average of 45; he stated that a c t r. of 52 might be normal if the heart did not look enlarged, but that one of 53 was pathological. These last figures were of course concerned with adults but seem to agree with our conclusions.

On our present experience, we consider that a heart which seems a little enlarged with the c t r of 52 to 54 should certainly not contraindicate operation, though a larger heart than this often indicates the presence of some complication and is probably a bar to *lasting* improvement. We have not yet sufficient evidence to say how often operation should be advised in these larger hearts for the sake of immediate advantages.

ANGIOCARDIOGRAPHY

We do not propose to discuss in detail the help that can be obtained from angiocardiology which was only available in nine of the later cases of this series. As a rule, there should be no need for this help from the point of view of diagnosis, but in border line cases where a heavy collateral circulation hides the diminished blood supply to the lungs, it may be of the greatest value, and it may help to establish the diagnosis in complicated cases where no diagnosis can be made on clinical grounds alone. Apart from this, it has proved of increasing value from the surgical point of view in delineating the anatomical arrangement of the arterial branches

from the aorta and of the size and position of the pulmonary arteries.

As Fig 4 and 5 show, there is no difficulty in demonstrating the shunt from the over-riding aorta and this is generally well seen in the film taken at the 2nd second in cases of Fallot's tetralogy. Often the pulmonary arteries start filling at the same time, which might suggest there was no great degree of pulmonary stenosis but we have found that the amount of the increased density of the lungs during the subsequent 5 seconds is a better test than the speed with which the opaque substance can first be seen in the pulmonary arteries. Even so, angiocardiology seems to give an added precision to the assessment of the degree of pulmonary stenosis present in different cases of Fallot's tetralogy, and may help in distinguishing between valvular and infundibular stenosis. Both these points may ultimately be useful in deciding the sort of operation that is most likely to be successful.

ELECTROCARDIOGRAMS

The two most striking features of the cardiogram are the large pointed P wave especially in lead II and the right ventricular preponderance. This is of such a degree that we think the term ventricular preponderance rather than axis deviation is justified even on the standard leads. We hope to deal later with the value of unipolar chest leads as these were not available for all the early cases.

Wood and Selzer (1939) thought that a tall spiked P wave might be produced by a right auricular hypertrophy. Pardee (1941) accepts the view that abnormally high pointed P waves occur with hypertrophy of the right auricle, while notching and broadening are seen with hypertrophy of the left auricle.

The prominent pointed P wave was generally tallest in lead II and some examples are given in Fig 6. The width of the P waves was generally 2 mm and exceptionally up to 3 mm. In these 50 cases P II varied from 2 to 8 mm in height, generally between 3 to 7 mm. Once (Case 30) it was small and sharply inverted. There was only one other where P II was as small as 2 mm high, 16 cases where it was 3 mm high, 16 where it was 4 mm, 11 where it was 5 mm, 6 where it was 6 mm, 4 where it was 7 mm and 1 where it was 8 mm high. The average was 4.5 mm. Chamberlain and Hay (1939) give 1.5 mm as the average size of P II in the first decade with a maximum of 3.0 mm. Pardee (1941) gives 2 to 5 mm as the usual size for the large P waves of mitral stenosis.

The cause for these large P waves is not certain. It is not due to the tachycardia that is generally

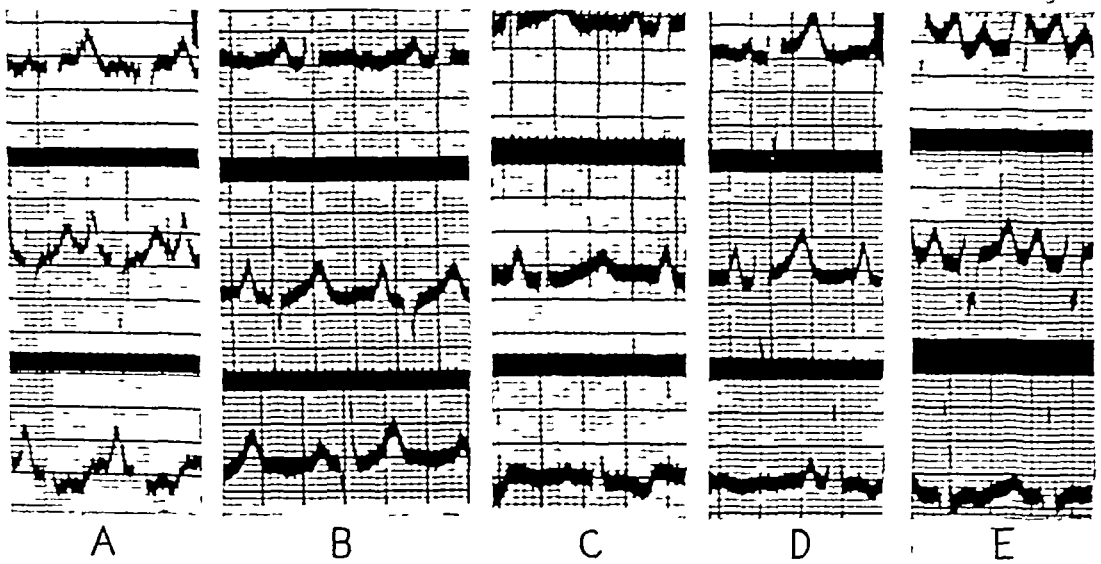


FIG 6—Typical electrocardiograms from 5 cases of Fallot's tetralogy showing gross right axis deviation and large pointed P waves (A) from Case 0208 confirmed post mortem (B)–(E) from Cases P067, H120 P022, and P035 confirmed by a successful result of operation for a systemic pulmonary anastomosis (Reduced to five sixths)

present, especially in the younger patients as equally tall P waves occur in the same subject when the rate is slower. The variability suggests that it is partly due to strain on the right auricle as well as the hypertrophy which should make for greater constancy. Moderately large and pointed P waves may occur with cardiac infarction or in cor pulmonale where there is right heart strain. Large P waves were seen equally in the cases of tricuspid atresia.

In Case 35 where there was a single auricle the P wave was large and pointed, 5 mm high. In Case 49 with tricuspid atresia it was tall and bifid as well. In the other two cases with tricuspid atresia the P wave was sometimes large and broad in Case 42, but in Case 33 it was not remarkable. Occasionally the P waves may show a fair amount of variation in height in the same record (e.g. Case 35). Where more than one cardiogram was taken before operation the P waves often differed in amplitude but never to any great extent except in Case 36, although there were large pointed P waves in her first cardiogram with a rate of 115, a subsequent one done six months later, but before operation, showed normal small P waves, with a rate of 75, there were no other significant changes in the two curves.

The most significant finding as one might expect was the high degree of right ventricular preponderance. The main exceptions were the 3 cases with left ventricular preponderance, it is fairly certain

that such a case will turn out to be tricuspid atresia or stenosis with a non-functioning right ventricle especially if on radioscopy the left is the larger of the two ventricles.

In the 47 cases that were thought to have Fallot's tetralogy, the general finding was an absent Q, a diminutive or very small R and a large S in lead I and an absent or very small Q, a large R and most constantly of all, an absence of S in lead III. Out of these 47 there were only 4 with S III and in these it ranged from 3 to 8 mm in depth. The average figures for the size showed that R I, Q III and S III were small, 2.8, 1.7, and 0.4 mm respectively, while S I and R III were large, 12.9 and 13.3 mm respectively.

The QRS complexes in lead II may be of the R type (23 cases) or S type (15 cases) or mixed (9 cases) or with very small QRS complexes (4 cases).

Now and again one meets with a case that does not show a high degree of right preponderance. Case 6 is an example where there was no preponderance possibly indicating a single ventricle as well as the usual features of Fallot's tetralogy, the result of operation was very successful but the colour was not improved as much as in most cases. In Cases 1, 30, and 37, all successful operations, there was less right preponderance than usual. Some cases showed a moderate R I in addition, of course, to the very deep S I.

T wave abnormalities were uncommon except for T III inversion in 11 cases it was sharply inverted and in 7 it was flat or slightly inverted. There were no T II inversion except in Case 30 where it was biphasic.

In two, T I was inverted (Cases 42 and 47) and in one it was flat (Case 17). In Case 42 for some unknown reason it became normal and upright again six months later, before his operation. In Case 21, T I was enormous, 11 mm in amplitude, and T III was deeply inverted. Fairly large T waves in lead II with an amplitude of over 5 mm occurred in 8 cases.

As with the P waves, the T waves in some of these cases showed variation in height, unlike most other types of heart disease where the size and shape remain remarkably constant. The S-T interval was often elevated in lead I and sometimes became more normal after operation.

OPERATIVE EXPERIENCES

In these first 50 cases the original basic technique, as recommended by Blalock, has been closely followed, in 6 other cases valvulotomy was performed or attempted. Pott's modification (anastomosis of aorta to pulmonary artery) was not used in this series, although it has been since.

The Blalock operation of anastomosis of a systemic artery to a pulmonary artery is always difficult and exacting technically, even when the anatomical conditions are favourable and the anastomosis proceeds smoothly. At times, when conditions are not favourable, it becomes an operation of really great difficulty and calls for all the surgeon's technical ability. Some of the earlier more difficult cases were especially exacting, and even with increased experience it is found that a series of straight-forward operations is suddenly interrupted by a complex anatomical situation calling for great patience and not a little endurance.

This is not an operation for the casual operator and indeed, quite apart from the pressure of the waiting list, it is desirable that the surgeon should operate regularly. In Blalock's clinic one operation a day is aimed at, it has not been possible to achieve this here because routine thoracic work must still be done, but a desirable standard should be two or three operations a week. Success is not possible without good team work and one must stress in particular the invaluable part played by the anaesthetists, Rink, Helliwell, and Hutton (1948) have already written a preliminary record of their experiences.

Often, these cyanotic patients are not in the state of general health that one would ordinarily demand before embarking upon a severe operation, they

may run a low fever, even with sharp rises, or have recurrent or persistent minor upper respiratory infections, etc. While it is clearly folly to operate in the presence of considerable pyrexia or recent increase of illness, we have learnt that it is often better not to wait for seemingly ideal conditions, which may in fact never materialize. It is sometimes best to seize the opportunity offered, for conditions may deteriorate rather than improve.

Moreover, once the anaesthetic or operation has been begun it is desirable, however unfavourable the outlook may appear, to press steadily on until it becomes quite clear that success is impossible. This applies not only to anatomical difficulties but to physiological ones as well. On several occasions the anaesthetist has reported the patient's condition as very grave and the temptation to abandon the operation has been great. In almost all of these cases continuance with the operation after a short wait has been rewarded by final success. The most striking example of the soundness of this policy came in the case of a small child (Case 41) aged 5 years, who was extremely ill, she was deeply cyanosed, with severe recurrent pain in the chest even when resting in bed, and was incapable of any activity at all. During induction of anaesthesia a bronchial spasm developed and she stopped breathing, and it was only with the greatest difficulty that the anaesthetist could inflate her lungs with an intratracheal tube in place, her heart then also stopped. Whether she was then dead is a nice point. Intracardiac injection of adrenalin was given and artificial respiration continued. The heart started again but spontaneous respiration did not begin for another 40 minutes, her condition was, of course, still desperate. At the end of an hour her condition had begun to improve and after much deliberation the operation was started, for it was certain that no second attempt could be made and the outlook was otherwise hopeless. The operation was completed and the child made an excellent recovery, ten days later she was learning to walk about the ward, a thing she had not been able to do before. She has continued to do well.

All our greatest hazards have appeared in the operating theatre, in this series the deaths occurred either in the theatre or within a few hours of return to the ward. If the patient left the theatre in even fair condition, recovery always followed. There was only one instance of bleeding from the anastomosis, that of a man aged 27, very disabled, very blue, who had already had a hemiplegia, he died several hours later from haemorrhage from the anastomosis which had been quite dry when the chest was closed (Case 48). Bleeding may, of course, occur temporarily when the clamps are

first undone but it either stops spontaneously or has been controlled by insertion of fresh sutures. In one or two of the earlier cases this re-suturing led to narrowing and impairment of the efficiency of the anastomosis and was responsible for some of the poor results.

It has been our experience that patients over 20 years of age carry a far greater operative risk, not only are they commonly severely disabled, but their heart muscle seems to have suffered from the long-continued strain, in contrast to the younger children in whom the myocardium seems surprisingly good. In addition the anatomical hazards may be greater, and the fatal hæmorrhage in this last case was certainly due to the very thin-walled pulmonary artery, aided by a certain degree of extra strain on the anastomosis during systole as the subclavian artery curved down over the prominent aortic arch.

SURGICAL PROBLEMS

Certain general technical features of the operation need discussion in the light of our experiences, for most of these features introduce important practical problems that concern, or should concern, the surgeon undertaking this work.

(a) *Blalock's operation or the Potts' modification*
Although the Potts-Smith modification of aortic-pulmonary anastomosis was not used in this series, it has been employed since and has attracted sufficient attention to make it desirable to discuss its advantages and disadvantages. It should be realized that it does not introduce a new principle, but is a technical modification based upon the original principles laid down by Blalock and Taussig. They postulated that certain cases of cyanotic congenital heart disease in whom pulmonary stenosis existed could be improved by anastomosing a systemic artery to a pulmonary artery in order to increase the flow of blood to the lungs, and in their preliminary discussions mentioned the use of the aorta as a possibility in place of one of its branches. It remained for Potts and his colleagues to introduce the ingenious clamp that made this possible.

The advantages of using the aorta would appear to be as follows:

- (1) The operation may be easier and quicker.
- (2) It is especially useful in small children in whom the subclavian may be too small to furnish an adequate additional blood-flow to the lungs.
- (3) It allows the size of the stoma to be varied at will and to be measured exactly.
- (4) It may provide a ready solution to the problem of the case with a difficult, deep, short, and narrow subclavian artery.
- (5) It avoids the dangers of cerebral damage

associated with the use of the carotid or innominate arteries.

(6) It is the simplest, and sometimes the only, way of overcoming the problem of a very high aortic arch with its branches arising at the very root of the neck (Fig. 7).

The disadvantages of using the aorta would seem to be as follows:

(1) It demands a postero-lateral approach (the operation is probably possible, but certainly very awkward through an anterior incision).

(2) It may be very difficult if the aorta is right-sided, as occurs in about one quarter of the cases. This is because the right pulmonary artery is often very short and deeply placed in the mediastinum.

(3) The pulmonary artery may be so small and narrow that it cannot be used, whereas a small thin artery can still sometimes be employed efficiently for end-to-end anastomosis with the subclavian.

(4) In older patients there may be too much disproportion between the size and thickness of the walls of the pulmonary artery and that of the aorta to make a safe junction.

(5) Direct aortic-pulmonary anastomosis may cause a greater strain on the heart and a greater risk of pulmonary œdema.

It is still too early to make a final assessment of the Potts' modification, but the most certain advantages it offers would appear to be a more rapid and less elaborate dissection when the aortic branches are small and deeply placed in the mediastinum, or arise very high in the chest, the possibility of adjusting the size of the stoma to meet the needs of the individual case, especially in very small children, and freedom from the dangers of cerebral damage following use of the carotid or innominate arteries.

In cases where it would be about as easy and satisfactory to use either the subclavian artery or the aorta, it would seem to be surgically sounder and wiser to use the subclavian and to avoid exposing the patient to the greater perils that must attend the deliberate manipulation of a structure of such importance as the aorta. After all, if some mishap befalls the subclavian artery the situation can readily be remedied by ligating it and the aorta could then be used. If some mishap occurs when the aorta is being used it would certainly be more difficult, and perhaps impossible, to retrieve the situation.

(b) *Antero-lateral or postero-lateral approach*
Blalock's practice of using the antero-lateral intercostal incision was followed almost exclusively in the first 50 cases, but has often been departed from since then. The antero-lateral thoracotomy incision



FIG 7—Case PO35 Angiocardiogram at 3 seconds This shows a left-sided aorta which is dilated and very high, with the innominate rising in the ridge of the neck to the right where it had been easily felt in the neck The illustration also demonstrates the large right to left shunt with pulmonary stenosis

has always been more popular in American surgery than in that of other countries, as witness the popularity enjoyed by the anterior approach for pneumonectomy and for ligation of the patent ductus arteriosus. In a very ill patient the antero-lateral approach may throw a smaller strain on the lungs and circulation than a postero-lateral one. In general, however, the exposure provided by the antero-lateral intercostal incision may be very cramped, and if the ribs are awkwardly shaped so as to make a high narrow chest, the difficulties of dissection and ligation of the highest branches of the subclavian artery may be extreme. In such cases the faulty exposure commits one to a set of circumstances that really constitute faulty surgery.

One important reason that determined the use of the antero-lateral approach in many cases in this series was our policy of opening the pericardium and examining the heart condition carefully to make as complete a diagnosis as possible and to be prepared to perform a valvulotomy if indicated. The pericardium can, of course, be opened and the heart inspected through a postero-lateral incision,

but it would be difficult to utilize the right ventricular approach to the pulmonary valve without considerable and most undesirable dislocation of the heart.

Our present practice is to use the antero-lateral approach only in those cases in which it may be necessary to operate directly upon the right ventricle itself. For all other cases a postero-lateral incision is used with resection of the whole length of the fourth rib from transverse process to costal cartilage. The resection of the rib is much more satisfactory than an intercostal incision which causes more bleeding at the time and may cause dangerous or even fatal oozing afterwards, the risk of bleeding is increased by the use of pericostal sutures which are also a cause of unnecessarily severe post-operative pain. The postero-lateral thoracotomy with resection of a rib is followed by far less pain than either a postero-lateral or antero-lateral intercostal thoracotomy. The exposure afforded by the long postero-lateral approach is a great advantage and allows a much more easy, rapid and safer exposure of the vessels and inspires the surgeon with much greater confidence that he has

more complete control of the situation. There is no difficulty in application of the pulmonary artery clamp provided the incision is carried well forwards, the performance of the actual anastomosis is easier than from the front. Moreover, the postero-lateral incision allows use of either the subclavian artery (Blalock's operation) or the aorta (Potts' modification), according to the conditions found.

With but few exceptions, in which the third intercostal space was used, all the operations by the antero-lateral route have been done through the second interspace which is definitely preferable except in very small children.

(c) *Right or left side* Blalock's earlier recommendation was to use the side opposite to the aortic arch in all but adults and patients in the later teens. His reasons for this were that if the subclavian is used as it arises from the innominate it forms a more satisfactory angle with the parent vessel when it is turned down for the anastomosis whereas if the subclavian is used as it comes off the aorta it may be sharply kinked at its origin, or flattened as it passes over the prominence of the aortic arch. Also, if the subclavian artery is found to be unsuitable the innominate or the carotid artery can be used instead.

In his latest paper Blalock (1948b) states that he uses the right side (when the aorta is left-sided) in all patients between the ages of 2 and 12, but prefers the left approach in children below 2 and in patients over 12 who have attained most of their growth or who are more than 5 feet in height. He mentions that some other surgeons have preferred to use the left-sided approach for all cases.

Blalock's earlier recommendation was followed in most cases in this series, but, recently, departures have been made. In spite of increasing familiarity and experience with the operation the dissection of the systemic arteries on the right side may be extremely difficult, not a little dangerous, and certainly very exacting, especially so when the superior vena cava is large and dilated. It was therefore decided to extend the use of the left-sided approach to children under 12 years as well as to older patients and this was done successfully in a number of cases and with much greater ease, even though the subclavian may appear unduly kinked and flattened at the time the result has been just as good, and it seems probable that the artery elongates and adapts itself. The right-sided approach was then used again on a small child aged 5 years (Case P043) and after a long, tedious, and exacting dissection a very deeply placed and long innominate artery was found which divided high up near the superior thoracic inlet and gave rise to a

subclavian artery too short to bring down to meet the right pulmonary artery. This could have been done if the carotid artery had been ligated and divided but in addition to the carotid another artery almost as large passed into the neck and it seemed that the two vessels must carry a large supply of blood to the head and brain. Alternatively the innominate could have been used, but in addition to the dangers of cerebral ischaemia this artery was so large that there seemed considerable danger of causing heart failure and acute pulmonary oedema if it were used. Accordingly the operation was abandoned with the idea of using a left-sided approach on a later occasion. This experience has finally decided us in favour of using the left-sided approach in all cases unless angiocardigrams suggest the right pulmonary artery is small or absent, indicating it would be dangerous to occlude the left branch while the anastomosis is made. The only other indication for a right-sided approach is the presence of a right aortic arch in a case on which one wishes to do the Potts operation.

(d) *The use of the carotid or innominate arteries* The danger of cerebral ischaemia is very real if the innominate or carotid arteries are used, in Blalock's series the mortality was 30 per cent. The carotid was divided to allow the innominate to be turned down in two patients in this series (Cases 24 and 35) and in one since (Case P034). The first did extremely well, the second developed an acute pulmonary oedema as soon as clamps were removed and the anastomosis allowed to function, and died after a few hours, the third became comatose and hemiplegic soon after operation and died the next day. Blalock (1948b) in his last paper emphasizes that the carotid or innominate should not be used if it can be avoided and states that in many of his earlier cases in which one of them was used, a little longer careful and patient dissection of the subclavian might have spared the carotid or innominate. It would appear to be purely a matter of chance whether interruption of the carotid circulation is followed by paralysis or death or by a good result. It is indeed a gamble, and a poor gamble as well, and therefore is neither surgically nor morally sound. In our opinion, the use of the carotid or innominate arteries is unjustifiable and should be abandoned.

If the surgeon is contemplating using the right-sided approach he should first of all study good angiocardigrams which display the disposition of the aortic arch and its branches. In this way he should be able to assess whether or not it is likely to be possible to use the right subclavian artery. This is a far better way in which to obtain the information than a thoracotomy. An unfavourable

arrangement of the great vessels, such as would make sacrifice of the carotid blood-supply inevitable, is seen in Fig 7, 8, and 9. In Fig 7 the aortic arch is unusually high and the innominate artery actually lies above the clavicle and could be seen and felt in the neck, clearly Blalock's operation would be impossible on either side without using a long length of carotid artery from the neck. Such an arrangement seems to demand Potts' operation, which was successfully used in this case. In Fig 8 and 9 the position of the innominate artery, deep in the mediastinum, is clearly seen and also its very high division with a resultant very short subclavian artery. In these cases the left subclavian artery was successfully used for the anastomosis.

(e) *Absent or small pulmonary arteries* The value of angiocardiology to display the disposition of the aorta and its branches is clearly proven in these cases and it has been of equal value in others. It has been less satisfactory in displaying the main pulmonary artery and its right and left

branches, often because of the slow and feeble concentration of the opaque solution in them due to pulmonary stenosis, and especially when a large and rapid shunt has caused the contrast medium to pass rapidly into the systemic circulation. In the normal patient it may be easier to display the chief pulmonary arteries more clearly, especially when oblique or lateral views are used in addition to the postero-anterior ones. One must be prepared to be disappointed with the delineation provided when pulmonary stenosis exists with a large shunt.

The angiocardigrams may, however, indicate that one pulmonary artery is either entirely absent or very small. Fig 10 shows an example in which the left pulmonary supply seems much smaller than the right. This suggests that it would be unsafe to use the right pulmonary artery as death would probably soon follow its necessary occlusion while the anastomosis is being made. The demonstration or suspicion of a small right pulmonary artery would provide an indication for using a right sided



FIG 8—Case C017. Angiocardiogram at 3 seconds, showing the origin of the innominate artery fairly deep in the mediastinum with a high division of the subclavian from the innominate and a large gap that would have had to be bridged between this and the pulmonary artery. It also shows an over-riding aorta, a high grade of pulmonary stenosis, and a dilated superior vena cava.

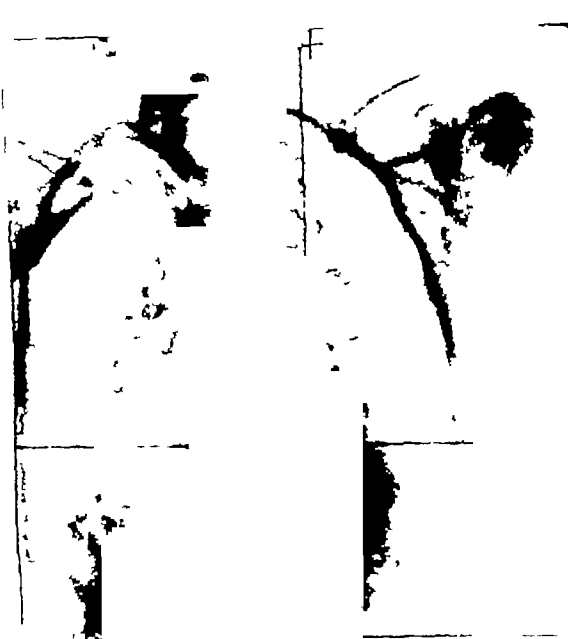


FIG 9—Case 0053 Angiocardiogram at 3 seconds. It shows the origin of the innominate artery fairly deep in the mediastinum with a high division and a resultant short subclavian artery that would have been difficult for a pulmonary anastomosis. It also shows an over-riding aorta with moderate pulmonary stenosis.



FIG 10—Case P048 Angiocardiogram at 4 seconds which suggests that the left pulmonary artery provides a much smaller blood supply than the right and that it would probably be unsafe to occlude the right branch. Operation will, therefore, be performed on the left side.

approach in preference to a left-sided one. Careful screening and plain radiography may also enable one to identify both pulmonary arteries or to suspect that one is small or absent.

In one case, after a long dissection, the right pulmonary artery was found to be not much larger than an intercostal artery and so could not be used, no ill-effects followed the exploration (Case 27). In another (Case 17) the right pulmonary artery was prepared and had been clamped for 12 minutes when the heart stopped, it was assumed that this was due to absence or obliteration of the left pulmonary artery. The heart was started again after massage and injection of adrenalin, and end-to-end anastomosis was performed between the subclavian artery and the first branch to the right upper lobe. Unfortunately the heart stopped several times and finally could not be started again, autopsy confirmed that the left pulmonary artery was completely obliterated. Such cases sometimes are unavoidable and part of the hazards of the procedure, but may be avoided by more careful radioscopy of the pulmonary arteries.

(f) *End-to-end anastomosis* In order to secure extra length of vessels Blalock not infrequently

ligates the pulmonary artery medially, divides it, and performs end-to-end anastomosis to the subclavian. This can be a most valuable step in some of the more difficult cases and may indeed be the only possible way to bridge a gap when the subclavian is short. It is especially useful when, on the left side, the prominence of the aortic arch threatens to kink and flatten the down-turned subclavian artery and to cause tension on the anastomosis. It should certainly be used in preference to end-to-side anastomosis to a narrow pulmonary artery in which most of the width of the pulmonary artery would be encroached upon by the anastomosis. One is naturally reluctant to take the step of ligating and dividing the pulmonary artery but, as Blalock says, a good end-to-end anastomosis is always preferable to an uncertain end-to-side one. The only difficulty may arise from considerable disproportion between the two vessels, Blalock states that he does not mind this provided the pulmonary artery is no more than two to three times the size of the subclavian.

Potts' modification may provide an easy alternative if the subclavian artery is too short to use without end-to-end anastomosis, but if the main

difficulty lies with a small and narrow pulmonary artery, aortic-pulmonary anastomosis may be difficult or impossible and direct end-to-end anastomosis with the subclavian is much the safer and better

End-to end anastomosis has been used twice in this series (Cases 8 and 17) and has been used twice since

SUMMARY OF SURGICAL PROCEDURE

We believe, in the present state of our experience, that the most useful and most satisfactory incision is a left postero-lateral one with resection of the whole length of the fourth rib and incision of the rib bed. This gives a perfect exposure, enabling rapid, comfortable, and much safer dissection of the vessels and also permits use of either the subclavian or the aorta for the anastomosis. We reserve the antero-lateral approach for those cases in which we anticipate that right ventricular cardiomy may be needed for valvulotomy.

We have abandoned the right-sided approach except for cases in which radioscopy and radiography (including angiocardiology) suggest the right pulmonary artery is unduly small or absent. A right-sided postero-lateral incision is needed if Potts' operation is contemplated in the presence of a right aortic arch.

In general we use Blalock's operation in preference to Potts' modification when it is feasible. The greatest value of Potts' operation is in small children in whom the subclavian artery is too small to furnish an adequate extra flow of blood to the lungs, and in older patients when the subclavian artery is too small or too short and it would otherwise be necessary to use the carotid or innominate arteries. We feel the use of either of these vessels is unjustified, owing to the much higher mortality from cerebral complications or cardiac failure and to the risk of permanent residual paralysis. End-to-end anastomosis of the pulmonary artery and the subclavian artery has a useful place when an end-to-side anastomosis would be difficult, impossible, or under undue tension.

Angiocardiology is an invaluable method to allow pre-operative study and assessment of the pulmonary and systemic arterial pattern.

Much emphasis has been laid on the difficulties and anxieties of these operations but this gloomy side is relieved by the more satisfactory side of success. In spite of the hazards and long hours of work one derives great satisfaction from contemplation of the successfully completed anastomosis and the rapid, indeed at times dramatic, improvement that follows the operation. As stated elsewhere an excellent result was obtained in 66 per cent, a most

gratifying figure when one considers the very poor material with which one is working.

POST-OPERATIVE TREATMENT

In our experience the post-operative period is much less stormy and anxious than might be expected. Children particularly tolerate the extensive and prolonged thoracic exploration remarkably well, and the difficulties encountered have been mainly in the older subjects. Penicillin therapy is started 24 hours before operation, and pre-operative instruction in breathing exercises is a routine. Cyanosed and polycythemic patients should never be left for long periods without fluids and particular care should be given to the fluid intake before operation as a simple precaution against the additional danger of thrombosis at this time.

These patients are well fortified against blood loss during the operation so that transfusion of blood is not needed during or after the operation, but plasma or gum saline are given to combat shock, and the drip is continued on return to the ward. They are encouraged to drink as soon as they recover consciousness. The need for intravenous fluids seldom continues longer than 24 hours, unless the blood pressure fails to rise—it is usually back to the pre-operative level or above in 12 hours—or unless cerebral thrombosis is a complication. An adequate fluid intake of at least 1000 ml in a small child to 2000 ml in an adult is needed to prevent thrombosis in the days after operation, and is best given by mouth. With increasing experience we have found that the amount that has had to be given intravenously has decreased, in the first 15 cases it averaged 37 ounces while in subsequent cases it has dropped to an average of 25 ounces. Blood transfusion was needed only in two cases, in one (Case 5) who bled into the pleura and in one (Case 8) who had profound postoperative shock.

The patient is nursed in an oxygen tent on return to the ward and the time that this is needed is judged by tentative periods of removal without development of cyanosis or distress. The time varied from six hours to four days, with an average of 36 hours. Any delay in regaining consciousness or inability to move a limb must be noted as an indication of cerebral thrombosis. Breathing exercises and postural coughing are started as soon as the patient is conscious and it must be emphasized that though this may seem unkind, almost brutal, after a serious operation, the children are not unduly disturbed and insistence on this early stimulation is amply repaid by the rarity of serious chest complications. A portable radiograph is taken within the first 24 hours and at frequent intervals subsequently for evidence of collapse and particularly for pleural

effusion Our experience is that morphine should be used with great care, it is not always needed in the first day, and seldom afterwards In those with distress from coughing, and this is not common, codeine is useful

There is an immediate rise of temperature after operation but very seldom above 101° , and excluding four cases with complications where it was prolonged over ten days, the average duration was five days The pulse rate was the better indication of the general condition it was frequently at its highest in the second 24 hours, and had usually settled to a steady level of 10 points above the pre-operative level by the end of the first week The close correlation between temperature and pulse rate, particularly the latter, and the presence of a pleural effusion is mentioned later

Two indications of the degree of success of the anastomosis in the period immediately after operation are the colour, and the presence of a murmur There is an immediate improvement in colour at operation as soon as the anastomotic circulation starts, but at this time controlled respiration is occurring In a successful case this improvement in colour is maintained in the oxygen tent, and after a short period of up to 48 hours will continue outside it Some cyanosis must be expected from the right to left shunt which remains, and this will be increased if breathing is embarrassed by obstructive secretions in the respiratory tract or by pleural effusions If these factors are taken into account, a comparison of the colour after operation, particularly of the extremities, with the depth of cyanosis before operation is a reliable guide to the degree of functional improvement that may be expected

The thrill over the anastomosis, which can be felt by the surgeon, is followed after operation by a murmur heard with the stethoscope, this is usually continuous as heard over a patent ductus arteriosus but may be systolic and diastolic or merely systolic Though chest complications may make recognition more difficult in the first few days, its presence is an encouraging sign of success and its absence suggests that thrombosis has occurred at the suture line and that the anastomosis is not patent We have become increasingly impressed with the murmur as a sign that a good result may be expected when the patient is able to start walking, which is usually after the first week

There are three important post-operative complications cardiac failure, which is rare, pleural effusion, which is common but generally harmless, and cerebral thrombosis, which is the gravest

One of the criteria for operation is a heart that can adjust itself to the altered circulation which

the anastomosis causes, so that much enlargement of the heart is a contraindication In this respect the selection of cases would appear to have been satisfactory for there have been few difficulties or anxieties on account of the heart The blood pressure rises to the pre-operative level, or above, in the first 12 to 24 hours, and any delay in this rise favours the development of thrombosis and calls for the exhibition of a "pressor" drug, such as methedrine, and plasma transfusion This happened in one of our early cases (Case 8), an adult, where the pressure fell to 50/40 and the systolic was below 100 for the first 36 hours, he developed a cerebellar thrombosis in the first 24 hours A rise well above the pre-operative level is mentioned by Taussig but we have not experienced it, should it occur, a venesection would be indicated

It might be expected that the sudden increase in the pulmonary circulation, with the additional work demanded of the left ventricle by the anastomotic shunt induced by the operation, might cause pulmonary œdema in the early post-operative period We have not experienced this in any case surviving operation though it occurred in one death after operation (Case 35) in one lung on the side where the innominate had been joined to the pulmonary artery Case 21, a poor result as judged by colour and the absence of a murmur over the site of anastomosis, was slow to recover from this operation, and, despite the absence of a pleural effusion, his temperature failed to settle till the 15th day On the 27th day he complained of pain over the heart and in the left arm, and was collapsed with ashen cyanosis and dyspnoea, the pulse rose to 140 and the blood pressure dropped to 65 systolic He recovered with morphia but the attack was repeated next day, and again responded to the same drug There was no change in the electrocardiograph to suggest a coronary thrombosis There seems little doubt that these were attacks of left ventricular failure and they were treated as such, he subsequently developed a cerebral abscess which was successfully treated by operation There were no cardiac incidents in the other patients Congestive failure was never seen, nor was digitalis used, despite the increased work demanded by the anastomosis, as shown by the increase of heart size after operation in most cases

The second complication of pleural effusion on the side of the operation is common and occurred in 32 of 43 cases after operation, in 11 it was of moderate size but in 21 it was large enough to demand aspiration, and in 10 of these, more than once The fluid commonly developed immediately after operation, or in the first few days and naturally it is usually blood-stained An average example

is shown in Fig 11 But effusion may suddenly increase, recur, or even first develop later in convalescence and this happened in 5 cases An early effusion successfully aspirated is on the whole less of a handicap in convalescence than the slowly developing effusion where aspiration is hardly necessary in the first few days and the decision is delayed It is in these cases that later and repeated tapplings are necessary, often difficult, and incomplete in their results It is these patients particularly whose stay in hospital is prolonged, whose temperature and pulse fail to settle, and 5 such cases were discharged with "pleural thickening" on radiography or showed a very small residual effusion all cleared up subsequently

The temperature and pulse chart reflect remarkably clearly the presence of fluid in the chest, an early effusion successfully aspirated is associated with a quick return to normal temperature and pulse rate a rise on the second and third day, which is not uncommon, almost denotes a slowly developing effusion a sustained temperature and pulse indicates the persistent effusion, so hampering in convalescence while with one exception—the case with left ventricular failure—a rise in pulse later in convalescence always pointed to the pleura as the cause This last point was well shown in Case 39 whose convalescence was extremely satisfactory until the 19th day when he complained of abdominal pain and felt unwell, a rise in pulse rate was the only significant sign but it was sufficient to predict that an effusion was developing on the operative side It was apparent to clinical signs and radiography the following day and aspiration allowed his convalescence to continue uninterrupted The late effusion was best illustrated by Case 2 who had a small effusion late in convalescence which resolved, but after returning home a massive effusion developed and necessitated readmission to hospital (Fig 15, Campbell, 1948) We have regarded these as mechanical setbacks and have not allowed them to retard progress by prolonging bed rest unduly, and this, with the exception of Case 2, has been justified for subsequent examinations have shown a clear and moving diaphragm There has been no evidence that these effusions are associated with pulmonary emboli and, except once where a very small amount of fluid was noted on the opposite side, the effusions have always been on the side of operation Persistent hæmorrhagic effusion occurred in Case 5 only, necessitating transfusion, repeated aspiration of 11 pints in all was needed over 4 weeks, the fluid gradually decreasing in colour and gradually in amount until it quite suddenly stopped and did not recur The correlation between temperature and effusion is roughly shown

by an average length of 3 days in those with no fluid, of 5 days in those with moderate effusions, and of 8 days in those where aspiration was needed

The third and most serious complication of cerebral thrombosis occurred in 3 of the 43 post operative cases Case 1, a boy aged 7, with a hæmoglobin of 126 per cent, had a history of a brain abscess on the left side when 2 years old A right hemiplegia of moderate severity which was noted immediately after operation began to improve on the seventh day and when he was discharged on the sixteenth day there was only a slight limp He has made a complete recovery Case 8, an adult, was a severe case with hæmoglobin of 141 per cent and had the severe drop in blood pressure in the first 36 hours already noted The two factors of marked polycythæmia and shock were therefore present to encourage thrombosis, and this was noticed in the first 24 hours, the left anterior cerebellar artery being involved Recovery from this was complete but on the eighth and twentieth fourth days he had thrombosis of systemic arteries and on the twentieth day a thrombosis of the anterior cerebral artery From this severe complication he has made a gradual but not a complete recovery, a disappointment in view of the excellent physical result The third, Case 29, was a boy of ten, with a hæmoglobin of 158 per cent, he was drowsy after operation and was found to have a thrombosis of the cortical ascending parietal branch of the left middle cerebral affecting the arm area. The blood pressure was not unduly low after operation but during the operation there was marked collapse when the right pulmonary artery was occluded, and it was probably then that the thrombosis occurred He is left with impairment of movements of the right arm and hand, a considerable disadvantage though compensated by an otherwise excellent result

A further severe complication which we regard as due to the operation was in Case 21 who was admitted to Oldchurch County Hospital one month after discharge from Guy's after a prolonged post operative stay of 56 days due to persistent temperature and left ventricular failure as already mentioned The cause of this was a cerebral abscess which was successfully dealt with by aspiration one month later It is not impossible that a post operative thrombosis was the basis of this complication, though it was some time after

It will be seen that cerebral thrombosis is the most important complication and one which to a lesser or greater degree nullifies the physical benefits that an otherwise successful operation gives It should be most feared in those with gross polycythæmia

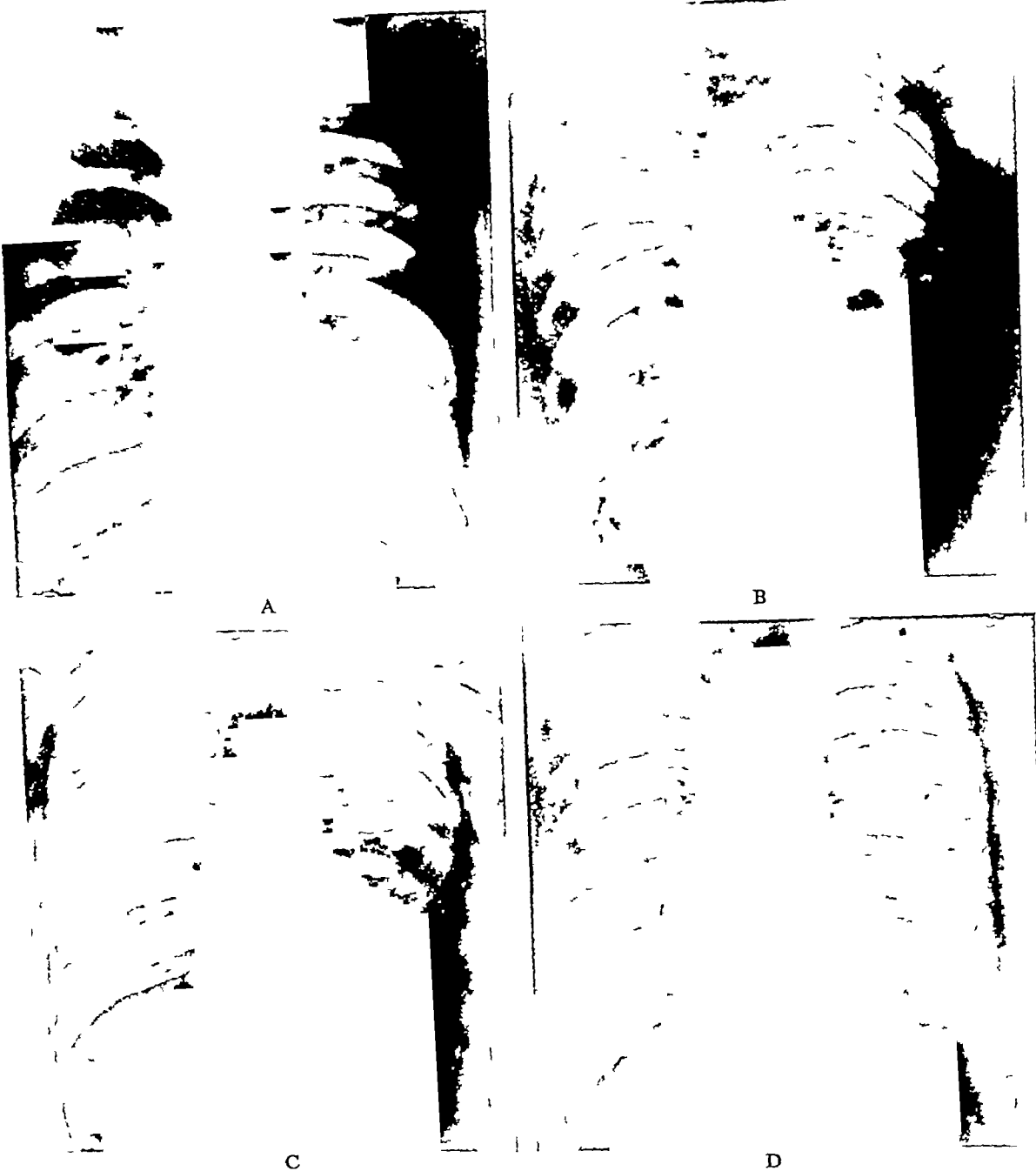


FIG 11—Case 26 (Reference No P069)

- (A) Teleradiogram in P A position before operation showing the clear lungs and some pulmonary bay with a raised apex. Both pulmonary branches can be seen (9/1/48)
- (B) Portable radiogram one day after operation, showing a moderate sized effusion at the left base with some collapse (11/2/48)
- (C) Portable radiogram showing gradual clearing of the effusion, the heart size becoming more visible but not yet easy to measure accurately
- (D) Teleradiogram, 7 months after operation, showing some increase in heart size from before operation, c t r 54 instead of 46 with less apparent change in the density of the lung than in many cases, although the result was most successful

with severe operative and post-operative shock, and in adults more than children. Prophylaxis with anti-coagulants introduces the danger of hæmorrhage and for this reason we do not use it. Nor have we felt sufficiently confident to start treatment by heparin within three days of operation, though there is a strong case for giving it promptly if thrombosis is diagnosed. If blood loss at operation has not been great, and polycythæmia is still present, blood letting is indicated and also intravenous fluids, by which method the heparin can be given.

In comparison with these three, other post-operative complications are slight. Some collapse of the lung on the side of operation, independent of effusion, occurred and required no treatment except continuation and insistence on breathing exercises. A small pneumothorax was present in one case and required no treatment and in only one was surgical emphysema of any degree present. Obstruction to breathing by secretions in the upper respiratory tract is largely obviated by insistence on breathing exercises and postural coughing, but was present in 17, though in only 4 did it cause any anxiety. Case 3 responded to the old fashioned steam tent, and Case 49, after 36 hours of obstructed breathing, to the more old fashioned method of turning him upside down, both exhibited by a watchful and wise ward-sister. Cases 40 and 41 both had severe laryngitis, and in the first, where a heavy growth of yeasts was cultivated from a throat swab, tracheotomy was necessary but led to little delay in his complete recovery.

The disability in the arm on the operated side is remarkably slight, and though the vascular change is apparent in signs, symptoms are slight and the disinclination to move it is soon overcome. A diminution in the size of the pupil on the side of operation, occasionally with ptosis, is almost a constant finding but had generally disappeared by the time the patient was discharged. No disturbance in kidney function was noted.

On the whole the postoperative period is surprisingly tranquil and uneventful for such an extensive and eventful operation. Children stand it particularly well and it is the adolescent or adult who is more likely to present difficulty. No better example of this can be shown than Case 41, a gravely ill girl of 5, whose heart, as well as breathing, stopped during induction of anæsthesia. Despite this and an operation lasting over three hours, and later a severe tracheitis, she was out of bed on the fourth day. Excluding 12 cases where the stay was prolonged on account of cerebral thrombosis, wound sepsis, or pleural effusion, the average stay in hospital was 23 days, and the average time in bed was only 7 days.

RESULTS OF OPERATION

In these first 50 patients there have been 7 deaths, a mortality of 14 per cent. Two of these deaths were among the relatively small number of patients of 19 and over (Cases 1A and 48). One had a single pulmonary artery and died when it was clamped (Case 17). In the others, there seemed no special reason except their serious condition and the severity of the operation (Cases 12, 32, 35, and 38).

Fallot's tetralogy was present in five of the seven. The remaining two had somewhat more complicated forms of morbus cœruleus, one having a single auricle in addition (Case 35) and the other having an infundibular stenosis, an aorta arising from the right ventricle without transposition of the pulmonary artery, and a small left ventricle with its only exit a ventricular septal defect (Case 32).

There were three patients where no anastomosis could be performed. One, an error in diagnosis already described, because the pressure was high in the pulmonary artery (Case 28), one because the right pulmonary artery was too small (Case 27), and one because of the technical difficulties introduced by the enormous dilatation of the collateral circulation (Case 14). In no case was it impossible to find a suitable systemic artery, but often the shortness of the subclavian led to practical difficulties and was, we think, sometimes the reason for the lack of success. This leaves 40 cases to be considered.

There were three where, in our opinion, there was no improvement (Cases 11, 19, and 22), though even then the parents of two thought there had been some. In one, the anastomosis was thought to be too small at the time (Case 11) and in a second there was bleeding from the anastomosis when it was nearly completed, and to save the patient's life many stitches had to be put in that probably led to some intra-arterial thrombosis and occlusion of the anastomosis (Case 22). It is possible that these three were also errors in diagnosis and not technical failures of the operation, but we do not think so.

In four the result has only been included as "fair." In one of these a similar difficulty with bleeding from the anastomosis occurred (Case 43), after operation he was able to walk upstairs which he had never done before but was not greatly improved. In the second (Case 21) the result was at first classed as a failure and after a long convalescence a cerebral abscess followed when seen later after this had been cured, he was certainly improved but not as much as most of the others. In the other two the result was as good as possible as far as the heart was concerned, but the patients were handicapped by thrombosis resulting in partial hemiplegia, in one of these severely (Case 8), and

in the other, causing much limitation of his arm and hand movements but not preventing a great increase in his physical activity, so that he could walk about the greater part of the day (Case 29)

This leaves 33 of the 50 cases (66 per cent) where the result was almost perfect. The patients' capacity was enormously increased up to walking several miles instead of a few hundred yards, or getting about all day instead of being an invalid mainly in the house. To the parents the improvement seemed almost miraculous. One boy (Case 1) who had been tied to his mother's apron strings was at school within two months and after a year was running about all day, playing cricket, and could easily walk 4 miles. After running fast for 25 yards there was slight cyanosis in his lips and nails and some dyspnoea, but this cleared up very rapidly.

Another (Case 2) who had rarely been out of his parents' sight had within a year walked 6 miles and climbed hills in Switzerland as easily as his parents. He was anxious to become a medical student and was doing well at school.

Another (Case 4), who had been carried into hospital by his father, was leading a normal life at school and was able to go roller skating within a few months. Case 23, aged 19, who had been a complete invalid, had been on a camping holiday and had walked 6 miles. Such accounts could be repeated for nearly all the patients and all who have done less well have been mentioned individually.

The cyanosis was also much improved. In most of them it was absent on casual inspection though it could generally be seen in the nails at rest (but often not in the lips) and tended to be noticeable only on a cold day or after vigorous exertion. In one of the severe cases (Case 6) the cyanosis was still moderate, but it had been extreme and the child was able to do so much more that we feel it right to include her in this group. Case 49, with tricuspid atresia, who was very severely limited has not yet made as much progress as the others, but after leaving hospital fit and afebrile, he was admitted elsewhere a month later with suspected bacterial endocarditis. He made a good recovery and can get about all day and his limitations seem more his unusually poor muscles than his heart. His colour has improved, but cyanosis can still be seen in his lips. We hope on the analogy of other cases that his improvement will go still further as his muscles improve.

The clubbing of the fingers also disappeared in some patients in the course of four or five months, some improvement was generally noticed very early. Where the clubbing was gross it seems more doubtful if it will disappear entirely, though it has changed greatly and become much less noticeable in the

course of six months. No trouble has been experienced from the arm where the subclavian was divided, though the brachial pulse has not returned with sufficient strength to be able to measure the diastolic blood pressure in this arm.

In nearly all the successful cases a continuous murmur, such as is heard with a patent ductus, has persisted though often the thrill seems less than might be expected with the murmur. This is a good guide to the success of the operation and unless such a murmur can be heard early and easily, it is unlikely that the patient is going to be one of the most successful results. Occasionally, when there was less improvement than usual, there was a systolic murmur only.

The enormously increased ability of these patients to get about often reveals orthopaedic disabilities that have not mattered previously. Owing to the poor development of the muscles through lack of use and the small blood supply, and sometimes to an added deformity of the limbs from their continuous squatting, their new activity reveals many postural defects. We have made it almost a routine for the patient to have exercises and to be trained in walking correctly, and with simple supervision on these lines and occasionally with wedging of the shoes they have made rapid progress and had no serious difficulties.

We were at first a little surprised that there was not a quicker increase in the weight. As already stated, parents were nearly always anxious about the difficulty of making their children eat, and generally the appetite improves at once and they eat well. Probably the greatly increased activity prevents them having anything to spare for putting on weight for a time, but they can be expected to gain after a few months rather than a few weeks, and most of them have increased and gone some way to catch up with the weight that is normal for their age.

INCREASE IN SIZE OF THE HEART

One of the points that has been emphasized as a drawback to the Blalock-Taussig operation is the increase in the size of the heart that may be expected from the work added by the left to right shunt. We have, therefore, paid special attention to the size of the heart before and after operation.

Of the 50 cases, 7 died, 3 had no anastomosis, and in 3 the operation was thought to have been unsuccessful. This leaves 37 where the heart size can be compared before and after a successful anastomosis. Owing to many of these patients living so far from London it has not been easy to get a regular follow up. We have, however, seen and obtained reasonably comparable radiograms in all

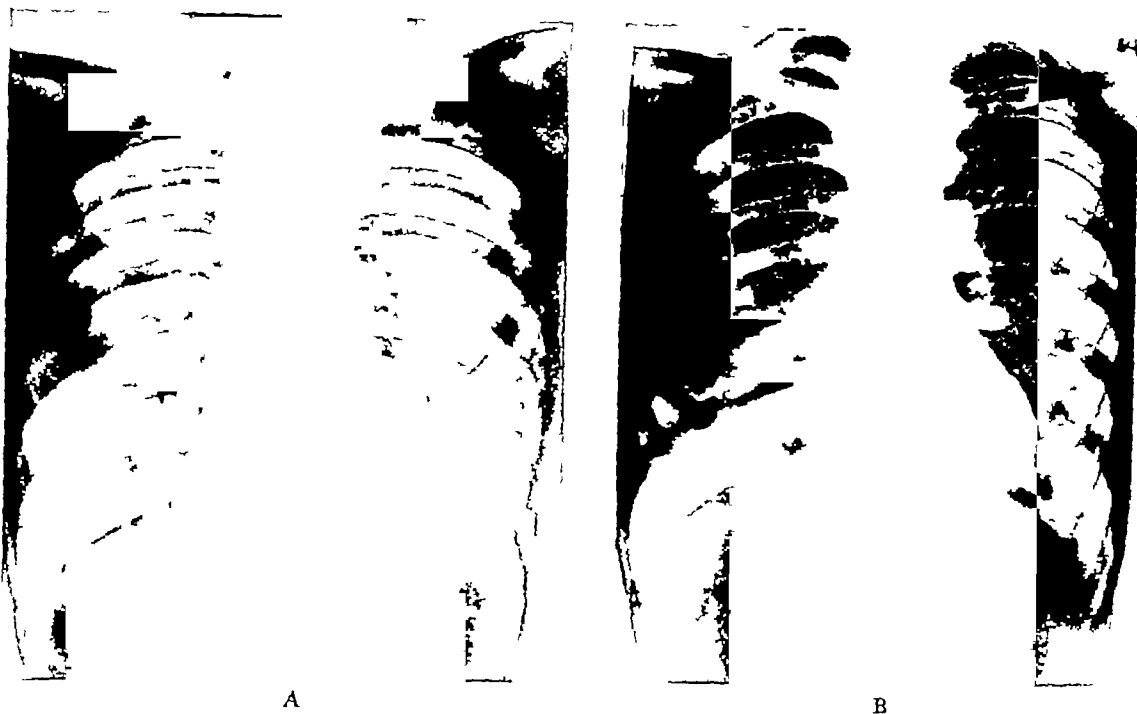


FIG 12—Case 23 a boy aged 19, with Fallot's tetralogy

(A) Before operation, showing a slightly raised apex and a straight left border

(B) Eight months after operation showing some increase in the size of the heart, the c t r being 48 instead of 42, but still within normal limits. There is also some increase in the shadow of the pulmonary artery, especially on the left, the side of the operation as the aortic arch was right-sided

but two where we are relying on reports from their doctors in neither of these had the heart increased in size a few weeks after operation. In one patient who lived in Cyprus we were fortunate in getting a report and teleradiogram from Dr Hills who had taken the films at Guy's Hospital before operation. Examples of an increase of average amount, of very little change, and of the greatest increase we have seen are given in Fig 12, 13, and 14 respectively.

This leaves 35 cases to be considered and we have taken separately those where the follow up was more than a year after the operation.

Of the cases operated on more than a year ago all 13 have been followed up and teleradiograms have been obtained. Two of these showed no significant change in the size of the heart, but there was some increase in the other 11. In 6 cases there was no further increase after the first month and in another 3 there was little or no increase after about four months, but 2 who had not shown much increase in the first few months showed some increase between four months and a year. The

average increases, shown in Table III might look like a slow but progressive rise, however, consideration of the individual cases shows only 3 out of 13 with any increase after four months (from 51 to 55). Naturally these three will be followed up with special interest to see if they are in fact exceptions.

Of the remaining 22 cases, some had been followed up for 11 months and all for more than 7 months, except three so far only followed for 5 months. Three of these showed no significant change in the size of the heart, but there was some increase in the other 19. In 10 cases there was no further increase after the first 4 to 6 weeks, in 9 there was some increase after this, but in 4 of the 9 it was only by 2 or 3 points per cent and in another 3 by only 4 points per cent. We had not as a rule, intermediate records at about 4 months in these patients but in the three where we had, the increase had all taken place by this time. The average increases are shown in Table III.

Taking the two groups of cases together the average increase in cardio-thoracic ratio was from 48.0 to 52.7 per cent. It had not increased in 5 of

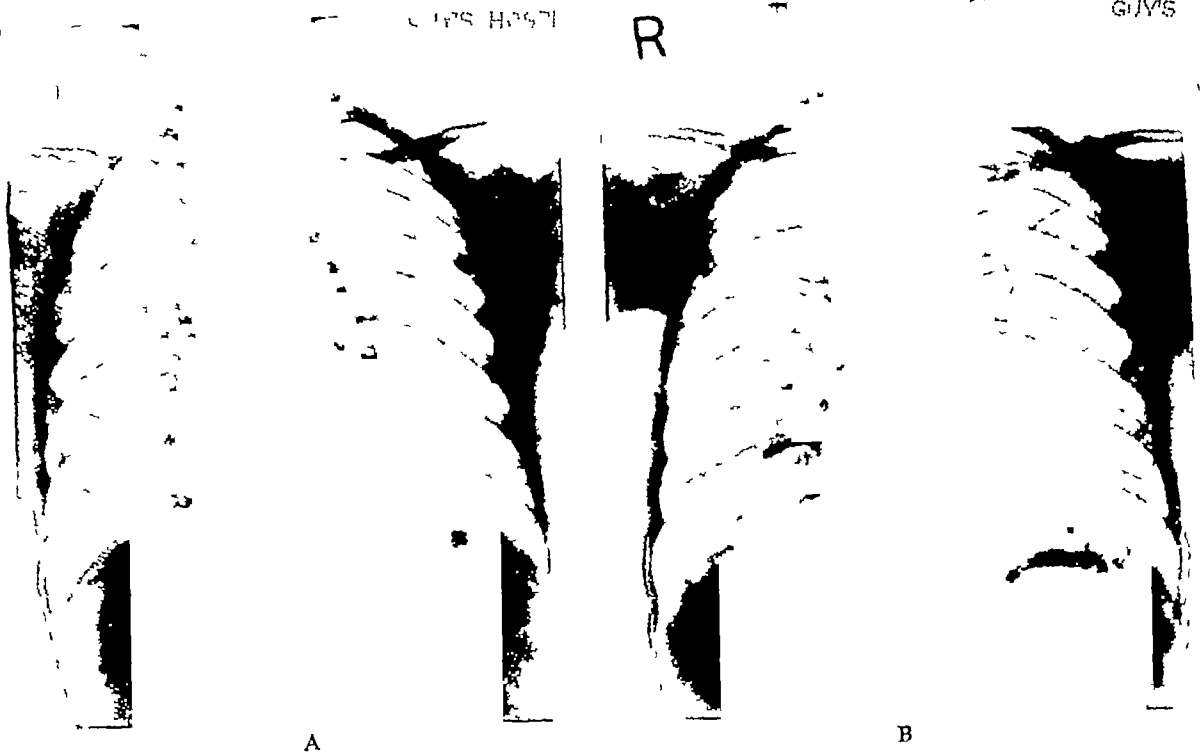


FIG 13—Case 29, a boy aged 10, with Fallot's tetralogy

- (A) Before operation showing a blunt apex and a fairly large pulmonary bay
 (B) Four months after operation showing hardly any increase in the size of the heart (c t r unchanged at 52) although the anastomosis was most successful, as shown by his improved ability to get about and the improved colour. The pulmonary artery is more prominent on the right which was the side of the anastomosis as the aortic arch was left sided

TABLE III

CARDIO-THORACIC RATIO BEFORE AND AFTER
BLALOCK-TAUSSIG OPERATION

Number of cases	Before operation	After operation			Time after operation
		About one month	About four months	At last visit	
13	47.2	51.0	51.8	52.5	12 mo
22	48.6	50.9	—	52.8	6-11 mo

the 35 cases. It had increased by 2 to 3 points per cent (from 48 to 50 or 51) in 8, by 4 or 5 points per cent in 10, by 6 to 8 points per cent in 10, by 10 points per cent in 1, and by 12 points-per cent in 1

case. In the last two the hearts had been small before operation (c t r 41 and 44)

Only one patient (Case 33, Fig 14) has made us anxious about his future by the degree of increase in the size of his heart. His clinical improvement was as much as in the others and there was difficulty in restraining him from doing everything. He was treated as a normal child at school except for games and had nothing except occasional attacks of tachycardia.*

PULMONARY VALVULOTOMY

During the same period 6 patients have been submitted to the operation of pulmonary valvulotomy. Four of these were thought to have Fallot's tetralogy with pulmonary stenosis as an important feature and the other two were thought to have pure pulmonary stenosis with some degree of patent

* We have since heard that eight months after operation he developed bronchitis with a temperature of 103 degrees, oedema of the legs soon followed, the temperature persisted, and he died in a few days

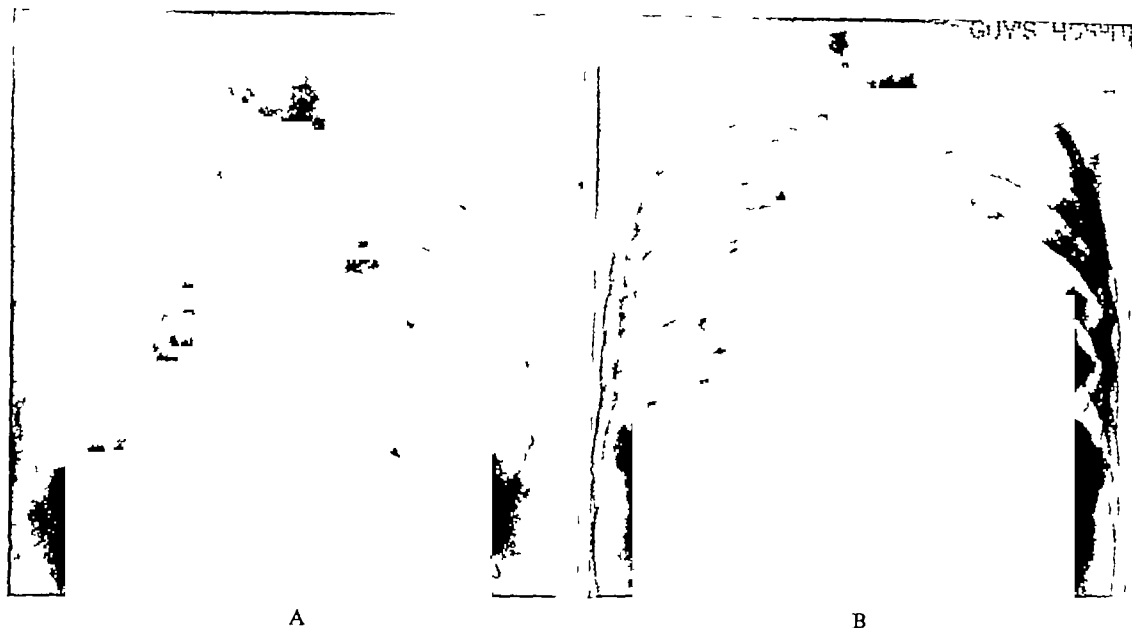


FIG 14—Case 33 From a boy aged 4, with tricuspid atresia and non functioning right ventricle

- (A) Before operation showing an enlarged and rather horizontal heart
 (B) Five months after operation illustrating the greatest increase of heart size seen so far in any patient after operation, the c t r having increased from 61 (11 0/18) to 69 (13 0/18 75) The pulmonary artery had become more prominent on the right, the side of the anastomosis, as the aortic arch was left-sided

foramen ovale or auricular septal defect. The operation appears to be of much greater danger and three (Cases P031, H117, and H121) of these six have died, but they were all older patients, 22, 24, and 29, and this and the relatively small numbers make any exact comparison impossible.

In the remaining three, the operation was successful and the patients were considerably improved in colour and in their ability to move about without acute dyspnoea. Unfortunately, two of these were handicapped, one by hemiplegia (Case H109) and one by some disability of the leg from arterial embolism (Case P079). Whether this is a greater risk with valvulotomy remains to be seen because here again, they were older cases, aged 18 and 23, and it appears that age (though it may be the associated degree of polycythæmia) makes thrombosis and embolism a greater risk.

The remaining patient (Case H107, Case 2, Brock, 1948), a girl aged 11, was as brilliantly successful as any with an anastomosis. She was active all day and was able to walk several miles and looked a normal colour with only trivial or even doubtful cyanosis on careful examination. Her arterial O_2 saturation had increased from 81 to 91 per cent. Twelve months after operation,

she has developed no signs suggestive of pulmonary regurgitation.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The method of choosing the first 50 patients for the Blalock-Taussig operation at Guy's Hospital and the results obtained have been described. Three cases were thought to have tricuspid atresia with a non-functioning right ventricle, and all the others Fallot's tetralogy, though sometimes with a known or suspected complication. All had great disability and severe or moderate cyanosis dating from birth or early infancy, with polycythæmia and clubbing of the fingers.

Most of these patients had a systolic murmur—often not very loud—in the pulmonary area, and in about half of them a thrill could be felt at this site. None had a diastolic murmur or a greatly accentuated second sound. Four-fifths of the patients squatted habitually and panting on exertion was nearly as characteristic.

The heart was generally within normal limits though some right ventricular hypertrophy could be seen on cardioscopy and shown electrocardiographically, sometimes the heart was small, and

occasionally a little, but never much, enlarged. If the cardio-thoracic ratio is under 45, the heart will probably stand a fairly large anastomosis with still greater improvement for the patient. More experience will be needed to decide how much enlargement of the heart may be allowed. Slight enlargement with the c t r 52 to 54 should certainly not contra-indicate operation but larger hearts with the c t r 55 and above require special consideration and the improvement may not be so lasting.

The heart was sometimes sabot-shaped and sometimes of more normal shape with a straighter left border or even with a slight prominence of the pulmonary region. The pulmonary vascular shadows were generally much diminished though sometimes more mottled shadows, probably produced by the collateral circulation, made this decision difficult.

The pre-requisite of a successful operation is that the disability and cyanosis should be mainly due to an inadequate blood flow to the lungs and, in general, this is indicated by the clinical and radiological findings that have been given.

The other prerequisites are that there should be a suitable systemic artery and a pulmonary artery large enough for an adequate anastomosis. Angiocardiography helps with both these points by showing the anatomy of the aortic branches and of the pulmonary artery and so in helping one to plan the details of the operation that is most likely to be feasible and successful. Careful radioscopy should generally be able to decide about a suitable pulmonary artery.

The operation was usually an end-to-side subclavian-pulmonary anastomosis on the side opposite to the aortic arch. The aortic arch was right-sided in a quarter. Reasons have been given for thinking it is better to operate on the left side regardless of the side of the aortic arch and this has become the usual routine recently. Our conclusions about the surgical procedure that should be adopted have been summarized (page 188).

The immediate upset caused by the operation is less than might be expected and children stand it well and recover quickly. Morphine should be used in small quantities only, and intravenous fluids are not needed in large amounts, though fluids should be taken freely by mouth before and after operation. Breathing exercises should be started at once and carried out vigorously. The only complications that are at all common are pulmonary—some collapse of the lung and pleural effusion. These generally clear up quickly though they often need aspiration once and may sometimes be slower and cause trouble. Arterial thrombosis at

the time of operation or soon after has been the second main complication and as already stated two of these patients have been left with some residual disability. This risk seems greater when the polycythæmia is severe.

On the average the temperature had settled to normal by the third day, and excluding 12 cases where there were complications from cerebral thrombosis, wound sepsis, or pleural effusion, the patient was up and getting about the ward on the eighth day and was able to leave hospital after 23 days.

There were 7 deaths in these 50 cases—a mortality of 14 per cent. There were 3 others where no anastomosis could be performed.

Of the remaining 40, there were 3 where we thought the improvement of little or no significance, and 4 where we have only classed it as fair, though in 2 of these the result was excellent as far as the heart was concerned but was marred by some residual disability from thrombotic hemiplegia.

In 33 of the 50 cases (66 per cent) the results were almost perfect and the patient was able to get about all day and walk up to 5 or 6 miles instead of a few hundred yards or less. The cyanosis almost disappeared except slightly in the nails and on a cold day. Many children quickly started at ordinary schools, and cricket, camping, and roller skating became the occupations of some who had before been invalids doing hardly anything.

A murmur similar to that of a patent ductus arteriosus was heard on the side of the operation in the successful cases. After operation with the added work of the heart from the new left to right shunt the heart generally increased in size a little but not greatly. In 5 of 35 cases there was no significant increase, in the remainder the cardio-thoracic ratio rose from 48.0 per cent to 50.9 when the patient left hospital and to 52.7 per cent when they were last seen (generally after 7 to 14 months). Although these average figures might look like a progressive, if slow, increase, individual cases show that the greater part of the increase had generally taken place in the first 4 to 6 weeks. Only one patient so far—and he had tricuspid atresia—has caused us any anxiety for the future by the size of the increase in his heart, and symptomatically he has improved as much as the others.

It was particularly encouraging that none of the patients seen a year after operation had failed to maintain or increase all the improvement they had made at the earlier follow-up after a few months.

We would like to thank Dr T. H. Hills for the angiocardiograms and the Photographic Dept., Guy's Hospital for help with the illustrations.

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APPENDIX ON CARDIAC CATHETERIZATION

BY G A ZAK

Nine of these cases underwent cardiac catheterization. Most were investigated when the procedure was still at an early stage of development at this hospital, with increasing skill and improved technique the results in later cases have been more complete.

In view of the envisaged operation the main object of venous catheterization was to get information regarding the pressure in the right ventricle and pulmonary artery, the presence and localization of shunts, and the volume of the pulmonary blood flow in relation to the height and weight of the patient.

It is not intended to discuss the problems and findings of cardiac catheterization in detail. From the rapidly growing data on this subject several widely accepted facts have emerged. For example the presence of blood of significantly higher oxygen saturation in the right auricle than in the venæ cavæ indicates arterial blood passing from the left auricle through an auricular septal defect, and the sudden fall in pressure from a high to a low level on passing from the right ventricle to the pulmonary artery is the best evidence of pulmonary stenosis. To calculate the pulmonary arterial flow with the aid of the Fick principle mixed venous blood must be obtained, and the mixing of the venous blood from the various sources may be incomplete in the right auricle. If the catheter can not be got into the pulmonary artery a blood sample obtained from the outflow tract of the right ventricle can be substituted. The pulmonary arterial flow is not necessarily equal to the total pulmonary flow (pulmonary capillary flow) as an appreciable amount of blood may reach the alveolar capillaries by way of a collateral circulation. No attempt has been made to assess this.

The sudden fall from high to low pressure on passing from the right ventricle to the pulmonary artery and sometimes the feel of release from a grip on the catheter is the best evidence of pulmonary stenosis, and a decreased pulmonary arterial flow is confirmatory evidence. If it is not possible to reach the pulmonary artery with the catheter, a high pressure in the right ventricle and a decreased pulmonary flow may be taken to lend good support to an assumption of pulmonary stenosis in the absence of clinical signs of mitral stenosis or heart failure.

The magnitude and direction of an overall intra cardiac shunt is calculated by deducting the pulmonary arterial from the systemic blood flow or vice versa. The adjective "overall" is used to denote that in many instances there is actually a to-and-fro movement of blood from the two sides across a single septal defect but as a rule one component is larger to such an extent as to dominate the clinical picture.

An evaluation of the output of each of the two ventricles of the heart, and the consequent calculation of a possible shunt is an approximation only. The calculation of the pulmonary arterial flow is often the more reliable. Of the three components necessary for its computation, the O_2 uptake through the lungs and the O_2 content of the mixed venous blood are known. If the degree of the arterial oxygen saturation is normal the pulmonary venous blood is taken to be of equal saturation. Even if it is lowered one is justified in assuming the pulmonary venous blood as still being 95 to 98 per cent saturated with O_2 . This was shown to be true by other investigators in the absence of pulmonary conditions likely to interfere with the gaseous exchange in the alveoli.

Case No., Age and Date of catheterization	Pressure (mean) in mm Hg from the skin of the back			Systolic B P (clinic ally)	Degree of O ₂ saturation percentages				Output in % of the average out- put of 30 l per min per sq m of body surface		Hb % 100% = 15.6 g Hb	Surface area in sq m	O ₂ con- sump- tion in ccs per min at STP (B M R)
	R A	R V	P A		R A	R V	P A	Syst artery	System	Pulm			
Case 23, 19 yr, 13/1/48	15	43	—	115	29.0	33.1	—	46.5	100	30	120	1.24	170 (-5.0)
Case 49*, 8 yr, 6/2/48	14	(27)	—	100	SVC 46.8	23.2	—	58.8	180	—	125	0.83	140 (-3.0)
Case 35, 7 yr, 23/4/48	7	45	15	110	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Case 36, 17 yr, 12/5/48	12	—	—	122	60.0	—	—	83.0	85	—	118	1.42	200 (0.0)
Case 42*, 19 yr, 20/5/48	11	—	—	95	55.7	—	—	73.0	110	—	140	1.32	220 (-19.0)
Case 39, 11 yr, 25/5/48	16	44	—	100	47.7	—	—	55.6	250	—	143	1.00	185 (-4.5)
Case 48, 27 yr, 4/6/48	15	50	—	115	38.2	46.6	—	62.7	90	35	153	1.77	250 (-4.0)
Case 44, 11 yr, 15/6/48	10	40	10	110	67.6	60.7	60.1	71.8	110	45	160	1.01	165 (-5.5)
Case 46, 15 yr, 18/6/48	10	62	10	125	53.3	55.4	46.6	61.8	100	50	142	1.59	210 (-5.5)

* In these two cases the diagnosis was tricuspid atresia, in all the others it was Fallot's tetralogy

The systemic blood flow in cases of septal defects cannot, however, always be calculated with the same degree of reliability as the right ventricular output. Here, the mixed venous blood component is the weak link in the chain. Often there is evidence of imperfect mixing in the right auricle, the coronary vein as a rule adding blood very much lower in oxygen content. The inferior vena cava in turn produces, generally speaking, more saturated blood than the superior vena cava. A blood specimen obtained from the inferior vena cava, however, may not be of uniform composition on account of the nearness of the openings of the hepatic veins. This fact makes the recognition of small atrial septal defects producing admixture of arterialized blood uncertain if one is to rely on the taking of single blood samples only. Because of the errors involved in calculating the pulmonary and the systemic flow one must hesitate to diagnose a small overall right to left shunt on small differences, larger differences can however be taken as reliable.

In these nine cases the clinical diagnosis was supported. Such support was felt to be forthcoming in cases of Fallot's tetralogy if there was evidence of pulmonary stenosis and an overall right to left intracardiac shunt.

Of the two cases diagnosed on clinical grounds as having tricuspid atresia only a single right chamber

with normal right auricular pressure could be demonstrated and no evidence of an atrial left to right shunt were found. In neither of these cases could the catheter be made to cross over to the left auricle.

There was evidence of an overall right to left shunt in every case.

The A-P diameters of the chest ranged from 18 to 24 cm with an average of 19 cm. To obtain the pressure as measured from the sternal level 15 mm of Hg has to be deducted from the values given in this table.

The catheterizations were carried out by Dr G A Zak and Dr H E Holling.

Case 23 Pulmonary artery not entered as tip of catheter got caught in papillary muscles towards the base of the heart, without getting near the pulmonary valves.

Case 49 Results vitiated by crying. The superior vena cava value is substituted for the right auricular value, as the former followed a period of calmness. It was thought at first that the right ventricle had been entered, but probably the catheter was in the coronary sinus, with the pressure high from partial occlusion of the lumen of the catheter.

Case 35 The use of an inhalation anæsthetic made gas analyses of the blood specimens impossible. The raised right ventricular pressure in conjunction with the lowered pulmonary arterial pressure indicates stenosis of the pulmonary ostium.

Case 36 Venospasm led to abandonment of procedure.

Case 42 Only the right auricle could be entered. The tip did not pass into the left auricle through a possible atrial septal defect. If such a defect was present, a left to right shunt through it would appear unlikely on account of the SVC and IVC saturations, which agreed with the value found in the R A.

Case 39 The right ventricle was only entered with difficulty and attempts at entering the pulmonary artery failed. Tip was at the base of the heart. The pressure in the right ventricle was recorded but no blood specimen was obtained, and when on withdrawing the catheter too far this chamber had been left the permissible screening time did not allow further search for the right ventricle.

Case 48 The pulmonary artery could not be entered though tip of catheter was brought to base of heart. Good agreement between SVC and right auricular saturation. The increased right ventricular saturation over the right auricular sample favours presence of a ventricular septal defect, giving rise to shunting of the blood in both directions though differing in quantity. The smaller opposing shunt can be detected if the tip of the catheter happens to be near such a defect, which seems to have been the case here.

Case 44 Superior vena cava, 54 per cent, and inferior vena cava, 60 per cent saturated, favour a small left to right shunt through an atrial septal defect, which is, however, far outweighed by the large right to left shunt through a ventricular septal defect or overriding of the aorta.

Case 46 Good agreement between the saturation values in both venæ cavæ, right auricle, and right ventricle. The low pulmonary artery saturation is thought to be due to obstruction by the catheter of an already narrowed ostium for about two minutes, prior to withdrawing the blood sample. The pulmonary flow has been calculated from the right ventricular saturation.

ABSTRACTS OF CARDIOLOGY

The Electrocardiogram in Biliary Tract Disease and During Experimental Biliary Distension Clinical Observations on 26 Patients G B Hodge and A L MESSER *Surg Gynec Obstet*, 86, 617-626, May, 1948

The effect on the electrocardiogram of experimental distension of the biliary tract was investigated in 26 patients undergoing surgery of the biliary tract. Sterile normal saline solution was introduced under pressure through a cannula into the gall bladder or through a rubber T-tube into the common bile duct, the maximum pressure used was 100 cm of water. Twenty-two of the patients had chronic cholecystitis, 3 had previously had cholecystectomy, and 1 had a carcinoma of the head of the pancreas with chronic cholecystitis and cholelithiasis. In 14 patients gall bladder distension and electrocardiographic studies were carried out simultaneously during operation. Of a second group of 13 patients the common bile duct was distended in 12 and the gall bladder in 1 patient, without medication or anaesthesia, 10 or more days after operation. No patient had angina or myocardial infarction and in none did distension of the common duct or gall-bladder cause anginal pain. All patients who experienced pain during distension of the common duct or gall-bladder complained of respiratory distress during distension and in the majority the blood pressure rose. No constant cardiographic changes were found as a result of the distension, control records obtained before operation included abnormal as well as normal tracings. It is concluded that changes in the electrocardiogram in patients with biliary tract disease are variable and may be coincidental, and that it is not justifiable to speak of improvement of the cardiac condition as a result of biliary surgery on the basis of a single pre-operative and post-operative cardiogram, since serial tracing may show instability of the cardiographic pattern, especially of the T waves. A Schott

The Changes in the Electrocardiogram Associated with Standing D SCHERF and M SCHLACHMAN *Proc Soc exp Biol, N Y*, 68, 150-153, May, 1948

Records in 80 male patients without evidence of organic heart disease were taken in the supine position, after standing for 1, 5, and 15 minutes and again immediately upon resuming the supine position. To investigate the part played by the sympathetic nervous system 0.5 mg of dihydroergotamine (DHE 45') was given intravenously to 12 patients and records were again taken supine and erect when the drug effect was at its height. In 25 (31%) there were significant changes in the electrocardiogram on standing, but neither the kind nor the time of appearance of changes was uniform. In 4

temporary A-V rhythm was observed as a result of change of posture. In 11 out of 12 changes occurring immediately on standing could not be prevented by dihydroergotamine. It is concluded that the immediate and delayed changes in the cardiogram must be ascribed to different mechanisms. The former are due to the change of position of the heart and altered contact between the heart and neighbouring structures, the latter to the sympathetic nervous system acting on the heart directly or through the coronary arteries. A Schott

A Clinical and Electrocardiographic Study of Paroxysmal Ventricular Tachycardia and its Management G R HERMANN and M R HEJTMANCIK *Ann intern Med*, 28, 989-997, May, 1948

In a heart that is damaged failure may be caused by sudden rapid rate. Most hearts in which ventricular tachycardia develops have been previously damaged by coronary disease or digitalis. A ventricular tachycardia is recognized by abnormally broad QRS complexes in the electrocardiogram along with an independent atrial rhythm.

Twenty patients with ventricular tachycardia are reported of whom 14 had coronary disease with or without infarction. The others had rheumatic heart disease, except for 2 in whom no organic disease could be found. Nine of the 20 were receiving digitalis at the onset of the attack. In 10 the heart rhythm reverted to normal on quinidine. Quinidine by mouth in a single oral dose produces a maximum concentration in the heart in about an hour, being eliminated in 8 hours. The largest dose used was a total of 5.2 g in 24 hours. The method of Hepburn and Rykert of intravenous dosage is useful, 3.5 g of quinidine sulphate in 500 ml of 5% glucose intravenously at 100 ml per hour. Once normal rhythm has been restored, quinidine should be continued by mouth for several days or weeks, the dosage being adjusted to prevent premature ventricular contractions. Morphine intravenously has also been used successfully, 10 to 40 mg, repeated after half an hour to 2 hours. Intravenous magnesium sulphate has also been used successfully. The prognosis is that of the underlying cardiac disease. In some cases achievement of a normal rhythm may not in itself prevent a fatal outcome.

J McMichael

Experience with the Schemm Regimen in the Treatment of Congestive Heart Failure. A A. NEWMAN and H J STEWART *Ann intern Med*, 28, 916-939, May, 1948

The importance of a low salt intake in controlling oedema is now widely recognized. It has even been shown that, provided the salt intake is low, large amounts

of fluid may be taken without increasing cardiac oedema. Schemm carried this principle to the point of recommending a very high daily fluid intake with a diet low in sodium and yielding a neutral or acid ash residue. Thirty patients were admitted to hospital for trial of this regime. Failure to maintain a steady state of oedema during a control period led to the elimination of 21 patients from later analysis. In only 9 were the data satisfactory. The regime alone was without beneficial action. Five of the patients were quite unable to consume the large amounts of water recommended. Moreover, the diet was not liked by the majority of patients. After an adequate trial of the Schemm treatment, the condition in 7 patients was found to be much improved on a regime of restricted salt, limited fluid and frequent administration of mercurial diuretics. Analysing critically the charts in Schemm's papers, the authors do not think that diuresis was achieved on his regime. The only occasions on which the patients lost weight were when mercurials were given.

J McMichael

Aortic Stenosis. A Study of the Clinical and Pathologic Aspects of 107 Proved Cases. C W KUMPE and W B BEAN. *Medicine, Baltimore*, 27, 139-185, May, 1948

To facilitate the diagnosis of aortic stenosis the authors studied the clinical and pathological records of 107 post-mortem examinations, in which aortic stenosis with calcium deposits had been demonstrated in the absence of any other valve lesion.

The ages of the patients varied from 10 to 80 years, maximum incidence seventh and eighth decades, ratio males to females 3 to 1. A history of acute rheumatic fever was obtained in two-thirds. Thirty-four patients had chronic congestive failure, 10 had intermittent bouts of failure, and 19 gave a history of an abrupt onset of failure shortly before admission. Cardiac pain was present in only 9 and syncope in 4. The pulse rate was accelerated. Blood pressure was not characteristic. On auscultation the aortic second sound was usually absent or diminished, a systolic murmur was heard at the base in 83% with transmission to the neck in less than half. Basal diastolic murmurs were heard in one-third of the cases. Similar systolic and diastolic murmurs were heard at the apex. Basal thrills were felt in 33 cases and though usually related in intensity to the degree of stenosis they were absent in several severe cases. Congestive failure was unusually refractive to treatment and was associated with much sweating. Cardiac pain differed from typical angina pectoris in its lack of radiation or radiation to the right, its advent after, rather than during exercise and its resistance to nitroglycerin. It was more closely associated with severe aortic stenosis than with coronary arteriosclerosis. Death occurred suddenly in 21% of patients, usually after 5 to 30 minutes, in contrast to the instant death in some cases of myocardial infarction. Coronary arteriosclerosis was common and was associated with myocardial infarction in an appreciable number of cases. Arteriosclerosis was common in the abdominal and descending aorta but not in the ascending.

The condition was diagnosed clinically in only 24% of

cases, signifying too great an acceptance of the classical triad of basal systolic murmur, thrill, and small, slowly rising pulse.

W T Cooke

The Diagnosis of Mitral Insufficiency in Rheumatic Children. A G KUTTNER and M MARKOWITZ. *Amer Heart J*, 35, 718-726, May, 1948

In order to assess the importance in rheumatic children of a loud blowing systolic murmur in the absence of demonstrable cardiac enlargement a comparison was made of the after-history of 144 children having such a murmur with that of 171 similar patients with potential and possible heart disease but with not more than a soft systolic murmur. The average follow-up period was 8 years (5 to 19 years). Those with the loud blowing murmurs were more susceptible to rheumatic fever as judged by the incidence of recurrences (63% had multiple attacks) than were the group with only potential rheumatic heart disease (31% had multiple attacks). Sixty-nine (48%) of those with 'mitral insufficiency' developed organic heart disease, and 13 died of rheumatic infection and 7 of bacterial endocarditis. Only 22 (13%) of the patients with potential rheumatic heart disease developed it and none died.

These observations suggest that the diagnosis of mitral insufficiency, based on a loud blowing apical systolic murmur, is justified in children and carries a grave prognostic significance.

H E Holling

Studies on the Coronary Circulation. III. Collateral Circulation of Beating Human and Dog Hearts with Coronary Occlusion. M PRINZMETAL, H C BERGMAN, H E KRUGER, L L SCHWARTZ, B SIMKIN, and S S SOBIN. *Amer Heart J*, 35, 689-717, May, 1948

Several methods of study were used in this investigation. Red blood cells labelled with radioactive phosphorus were injected into moribund patients shortly before death. At necropsy the heart was removed and the distribution of the radioactive cells was quantitatively determined by the Geiger counter and radio-autographs. Five hearts were studied, 2 normal and 3 from patients with myocardial infarction who died 4 days, 12 days and 8 weeks after the onset of the attacks. Despite certain criticisms that may be advanced against these observations, the authors conclude that in arteriosclerotic hearts with myocardial infarction in living man there is a functioning collateral circulation which allows blood to enter all parts of a myocardial infarction, including the central portions.

Red cells labelled with radioactive phosphorus were injected into dogs at varying times after ligation of the anterior descending branch of the left coronary artery. At various intervals thereafter the hearts were stopped suddenly by freezing. The distribution of the radioactive cells was quantitatively determined. These observations lead the authors to conclude that (a) Blood from collateral channels supplies the entire mass of ischaemic myocardium distal to a ligated coronary artery. (b) The ischaemic right ventricular myocardium supplied by the ligated artery is better nourished by collateral blood than is a similar portion of the left

ventricle (c) The sub-epicardial portion of the ischemic myocardium is better nourished than the sub-endocardial region (d) The anastomotic blood continues to enter the ischemic myocardium for at least 30 minutes after coronary artery occlusion (e) The collateral blood supply to the ischemic myocardium is an actively circulating one which supplies the entire ischemic region

The observations are thought to explain in man (a) the rarity of infarction of the right ventricle, (b) the greater infarction of the sub-endocardial than of the sub-epicardial muscle, (c) the fact that infarcts are generally smaller than the mass of muscle supplied by the occluded vessel

R T Grant

The Effect of Occlusive Arterial Diseases of the Extremities on the Blood Supply of Nerves Experimental and Clinical Studies on the Role of the Vasa Nervorum
J T ROBERTS *Amer Heart J*, 35, 369-392 March 1948

In a series of dogs the blood supply to nerves was interfered with in various ways—by ligation of the nutrient arteries, by stripping off the perineurium by compressing and stretching the nerve and by injecting air or particulate matter into the arteries. The degree of ischemia was assessed by the results of inter-arterial injections of dye. The interference with blood supply was found to alter the function and structure of the nerves. Clinical studies in man showed that the blood supply to peripheral nerves may be reduced by similar processes in a number of conditions. Sensory and motor changes are closely related with the ischemia of the nerves. A reflex arc for explaining referred pain on the basis of neural ischemia is proposed

R T Grant

The Effect of Arteriosclerosis on the Dynamics of Hypertension in the Aged A Preliminary Clinical and Pathological Study of 150 Cases F D ZEMAN and B M SCHWARTZ *J Gerontol*, 3, 40-47, Jan, 1948

The authors report clinical and necropsy findings in 150 unselected elderly subjects, observed for periods of from a few days to 20 years. The maximum number of blood-pressure estimations on any patient was 57, the minimum 1. Blood pressure, taken during routine medical visits, was classified as normal (150/90 mm Hg), systolic hypertension (over 150/90 or under), systolic and diastolic hypertension (over 150/over 90). On this basis patients were placed in 4 main groups: (1) (a) normal, 12% (b) mainly normal, occasional variations 11%, (2) (a) every systolic reading raised, with every diastolic reading normal 13%, (b) most systolic readings raised, with most diastolics normal, 26%, (3) (a) both pressures raised (except terminally), 17% (b) occasional variations of this, 11% (4) the remaining 9% in whom readings were variable. One-third of all males had evidence of coronary occlusion. In females the incidence was much lower. Arteriosclerosis of the aorta was present in all groups but most severe in (2). Renal arteriosclerosis was most marked in group (3). Cerebral accidents became commoner as blood pressure rose.

Necropsy showed that peripheral resistance increases with age, and this factor, with decreased aortic elasticity, gives rise to systolic hypertension, which may, however, really be a modified systolic-diastolic hypertension. Pure systolic hypertension occurs when decrease in aortic elasticity is greater than increase in peripheral resistance. The authors stress the need for consideration of cardiac, cerebral and renal function before a blood pressure level is taken as indicative of cardiovascular disease, a normal blood pressure in old age is produced by interaction of the above variables, and does not afford evidence of normality

Morag L Insley

Heart Disease in Pregnancy D J MACRAE *J Obstet Gynaec Brit Emp*, 55 184-198 April 1948

Heart disease is a common and serious complication of pregnancy. There was an incidence of 0.8% in 29,713 patients attending Queen Charlotte's Maternity Hospital from 1937 to 1946 inclusive, with a mortality of 3%. In the series reviewed 11% of the maternal deaths were due to heart disease.

Pregnancy increases the work of the heart to such an extent that a damaged heart may be unable to bear the extra strain. The most valuable single method of assessing cardiac function in these cases is by determining the response to the routine of daily life. The classification adopted by the New York Heart Association is recommended: Group 1 no limitation of normal active life; Group 2 slight limitation producing breathlessness at the end of effort; Group 3 definite limitation necessitating resting two or three times while climbing stairs; Group 4 heart failure at rest. Auricular fibrillation is a most serious complication, in the series reviewed of 7 patients with fibrillation 3 died. Once decompensation occurs in pregnancy the chance of its recurring in subsequent pregnancy is great, and termination requires consideration. This is also advised for Group 4 patients and those in Group 3 who in the early months fail to respond to medical treatment. This consists of maximum rest with at least 2 hours in the afternoon and 12 at night. Weekly examinations are advised throughout pregnancy. Intercurrent infection should be treated seriously, and admission to hospital for a week of observation at the twenty-eighth week is advised and again for the week preceding delivery. Vaginal delivery is the method of choice with adequate sedatives and forceps in the second stage. In Group 4 no obstetrical treatment should be attempted until the patient is thoroughly rested and digitalized.

Cæsarean section was performed on 21 patients in this group, but its role in patients with heart disease is strictly limited, as for example in heart disease with associated disproportion. The need for sterilization should not be used as an argument in its favour.

In these 225 patients with heart disease 124 were suffering from mitral stenosis, 23 had an associated aortic incompetence and 13 had congenital lesions, of which the most serious was coarctation. In such cases pregnancy should be avoided but if it does occur Cæsarean section is advised as the method of delivery.

The avoidance of infection in the puerperium and the

importance of adequate rest are stressed, breast feeding was not permitted in Group 3 and 4 patients. As most of the fatalities occurred in the puerperium the difficulty of giving a prognosis in the early stage of pregnancy is mentioned. Patients may easily pass from one group to the other during the course of pregnancy or labour, but the prognosis has greatly improved with better antenatal and intra partum care
J Stallworthy

The Electrocardiogram in Mitral Stenosis with Special Regard to its Development. A Study of 100 Cases
H RASMUSSEN and G NYHUS *Acta med scand*, 129, 446-471, Jan 27, 1948

The authors state that their object in this study was to seek electrocardiographic peculiarities, other than those usually described, that might be of value in diagnosis. One of the authors believed that he had observed, in a previous study of the cardiogram in diseases of the left side of the heart, progressive changes leading to a left bundle branch block. It was therefore possible that similar changes might be found in disease affecting chiefly the right side of the heart.

Serial studies of the electrocardiograms of 100 patients and of the size of the heart show that the cardiographic changes and increase in the size of the heart appear simultaneously during the progress of the disease. Retardation of the impulse to the right ventricle is held to be decisive for the cardiographic development. The retardation may cease in the stage with low R_1 or may progress until a maximal right ventricular retardation curve appears, ending with right bundle-branch block. The latter occurs in the same proportion of cases as does left bundle branch block in left heart disease.

Donald Hall

The Arterial Oxygen Saturation in Cyanotic Types of Congenital Heart Disease G E MONTGOMERY, J E GERACI, R L PARKER, and E H WOOD *Proc Mayo Clin*, 23, 169-176, April 14, 1948

This communication deals with the application of the oximeter to measurements of oxygen saturation of the blood. The oximeter used was that described by Millikan in 1942 and fitted with a photo-electric colorimeter. The oxygen saturation of the blood is measured directly by fitting the apparatus on to the human ear. The first study was concerned with the oxygen saturation of the blood in 25 patients with congenital cardiac defects of the cyanotic group, 19 healthy subjects served as controls. Readings of oxygen saturation of arterial blood were taken and the effects of breathing 100% oxygen, change of posture, and exercise were particularly noted.

With the patients breathing pure oxygen the arterial saturation increased by from 2 to 16 points %, while in the normal controls this was only increased by from 1 to 5 points. The effect of walking less than 2 miles an hour diminished the arterial oxygen saturation by from 3.5 to 19 points % in the patients while the maximum in the normals was only 2 points %.

Interesting data are given on 1 patient with the tetralogy of Fallot, who, when exercised on the treadmill for 5 minutes at 1.7 miles per hour, showed a fall of

arterial oxygen saturation from 80% to about 50% in a normal subject in the same circumstances the oxygen saturation increased slightly.

The second part of the paper deals with the determination of arterial oxygen saturation at rest and during exercise in 8 cyanotic patients. This was done both by the Van Slyke method and by oximeter readings. The results were then compared and it was found that the average decrease in saturation on exercise was 19.5% by the Van Slyke method, while the simultaneous oximeter readings indicated a 13.3% decrease. Thus the discrepancies are large, but, as the authors say, "the instrument is still of considerable value in estimating the degree of disability of a patient and in judging the efficacy of corrective surgical procedures in such patients". Suitable data are given in support of these statements.

A I Suchett have

Electrocardiographic Studies of Asynchronism of Ejection from the Ventricles. Normal Subjects and Patients with Bundle Branch Block G F ELLINGER, F G GILLICK, B R BOONE, and W E CHAMBERLAIN *Amer Heart J*, 35, 971-979, June, 1948

Analyses of electrocardiograms indicate that, in normal subjects, asynchronous ventricular ejection is more frequent than synchronous ejection. In patients with left bundle branch block ejection from the right heart and in patients with right bundle branch block ejection from the left heart precedes that of the opposite side by a significantly longer time than in normal subjects.

R T Grant

The Effect of Spinal Anesthesia on the Renal Ischemia in Congestive Heart Failure R. MOKOTOFF and G ROSS. *J clin Invest*, 27, 335-339, May, 1948 12 refs.

High spinal anaesthesia caused no significant changes in renal plasma flow and glomerular filtration rates in 11 cases of chronic congestive heart failure. The ischemia with vasoconstriction associated with this condition cannot be attributed, therefore, to neurogenic stimulation following a fall in cardiac output.

E F McCarthy

Oxygenation Studies in Congenital Pulmonary Stenosis. An Application of Recording Oximetry in the Evaluation of Cardiorespiratory Function G GULLICKSON, J O ELAM, H HAMMOND, J R PAINE, and R L VARCO. *Amer Heart J*, 35, 940-947, June, 1948

In 10 cases of the tetralogy of Fallot the arterial oxygen was estimated by a recording oximeter before, during and after operation for the establishment of a systemic pulmonary arterial shunt. The chief findings were that (1) a rise in arterial oxygen saturation occurs practically immediately on the establishment of the shunt, (2) as a result of the operation the saturation time upon administration of 100% oxygen is greatly shortened.

R T Grant

HYPERTENSIVE AND ISCHÆMIC HEART DISEASE

A COMPARATIVE CLINICAL AND PATHOLOGICAL STUDY

BY

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Hypertension and coronary sclerosis have been the subject of extensive study, yet they have many aspects that are still poorly understood. In the present work we have tried to ascertain how far they are dissociated and how far they overlap, and in particular we have studied their effects on the circulatory capacity of the coronary tree by injection and radiography.

Over a period of four years, from 1935 to 1939, we made a careful clinical study of most of the cases of ischæmic and hypertensive heart disease admitted to the wards of the Hammersmith Hospital. A total of 189 cases was analysed, of which 55 per cent were hypertensive, 30 per cent were ischæmic, and 15 per cent were mixed. Sooner or later some of these cases came to autopsy and so provided our chief material.

Each patient was classified in an arbitrary fashion, on clinical grounds, before the necropsy was made: those with angina pectoris or with myocardial infarction being considered to have ischæmic heart disease whatever the level of the blood pressure, those with high blood pressure and without angina or myocardial infarction being considered to have hypertensive heart disease.

The diagnosis of angina pectoris was made entirely on the history, that of myocardial infarction rested on well-known electrocardiographic criteria. Only patients with systolic blood pressures over 200 mm and diastolic blood pressures over 100 mm, known to have been persistent, were included in the hypertensive series. In all there were twenty-seven hypertensive and fifteen ischæmic cases. In addition, twelve normal hearts were included in the pathological study to serve as controls.

In the hope of learning something about the factors governing cardiac enlargement, and in order to facilitate correlation between the clinical and pathological findings, an attempt was made to

divide the cases into subgroups. Subdivision of the fifteen ischæmic cases proved too difficult, however, and was finally abandoned in favour of Table I, for it was not clear whether a profitable subdivision should be based on the height of the blood pressure, on the duration of myocardial ischæmia, or on the duration of heart failure, moreover, the blood pressure was not known prior to myocardial infarction in some instances.

The twenty-seven hypertensive cases, which followed a simpler course, were subdivided according to their stage of development when death intervened as follows:

(1) No cardiac symptoms. Cases 24, 47, 60 and 69. Death was from pulmonary embolism in Case 24, from cerebral hæmorrhage in Case 47, and from uræmia in Cases 60 and 69.

(2) Effort dyspnœa only. Cases 23, 36, 39, 43, 44, and 65. Death was from cerebral hæmorrhage in Cases 23 and 44, from herniotomy in Cases 36 and 39, from pneumonia in Case 43, and from hæmatemesis from peptic ulcer in Case 65.

(3) Left ventricular failure. Cases 11, 13, 19, 41, 45, and 68. Death was from cerebral hæmorrhage in Case 11, from uræmia in Cases 13, 19, 41, and 45, and from bronchopneumonia in Case 68.

(4) Full course—death in congestive heart failure. Cases 8, 32, 38, 58, 62, and 63 followed previous manifestations of left ventricular failure, Cases 28, 48, 49, 50, and 53 had no such previous manifestations.

CLINICAL FEATURES

Owing to the arbitrary nature of the clinical grouping, the complaint was necessarily one of pain in those with ischæmic heart disease: in ten it was the presenting feature, but in five it was less evident than dyspnœa. For the same reason pain was not present in the hypertensive group, except in an

TABLE I
ISCHEMIC CASES

Case No	B P	Duration of angina (months)	Duration of myocardial infarction (months)	Duration of L V failure (months)	Duration of congestive heart failure (months)	Weight of patient
17	-	nil	<1	<1	nil	12 st 6 lb
22	+	24	24	24	nil	6 st 7 lb
25	-	24	10	nil	nil	-
29	+	30	<1	nil	nil	-
30	+	nil	20	18	1 5	8 st 7 lb
37	-	1	1 5	2 5	2 5	-
40	-	nil	9	8	nil	13 st 1 lb
42	++	18	nil	nil	nil	9 st 4 lb
46	+	24	15	terminal	terminal	10 st 0 lb
51	+	nil	<1	terminal	terminal	12 st 6 lb
52	-	24	24	3	3	10 st 2 lb
55	+++	12	nil	36	terminal	12 st 9 lb
66	-	60	<1	<1	terminal	11 st 0 lb
70	-	12	<1	<1	<1	-
73	+	6	1	1	1	-

Note—The blood pressure is recorded as + when it was in the region of 160–180/80–100 at its highest. In Case 42 it was higher than this, but only for a short time. Case 55 was originally classed as hypertensive, but had to be transferred to the ischaemic group owing to the development of angina. Case 37 was complicated by rheumatic heart disease with organic mitral incompetence.

atypical form which will be described later, but dyspnoea was invariable in those with cardiac symptoms.

There was a high incidence of rheumatic fever in both groups, four out of fifteen with ischaemic heart disease, and six out of twenty-seven with hypertensive heart disease. In two of each group the first attack had been in childhood, but in the remainder it had occurred in the third and fourth decades, and from the description might well have been rheumatoid arthritis. There was nothing else of significance in the previous history.

Personal and family history The background of these patients—their environment in childhood and later life, their private lives, their occupations, their relaxations, their habits and their reactions to the world in which they lived—seemed ordinary.

Cardiovascular disease was described in one or other or both parents in four of the ischaemic and in three of the hypertensive patients, but its exact nature, whether ischaemic or hypertensive, could not be ascertained.

Sex and age There were twice as many males as females in the ischaemic group, whereas the proportion was equal in the hypertensive group. This difference is significant and well known. It was even more conspicuous in the larger clinical series. The sex distribution of the mixed cases was the same as of those with hypertension.

In the ischaemic group the average age for the men was 57 and for the women 68, in the hyper-

tensive group the figures were 59 and 55 respectively. The point of interest is the older age of women with ischaemic heart disease. This, too, is now well known.

Duration and onset The average duration of life from the onset of cardiac symptoms was 1 9 years for those with ischaemic heart disease, and 2 2 years for those with hypertensive heart disease. Since the period during which these investigations were carried out was only about four years, and since only those cases that died were included in the series, these figures do not indicate the true prognosis of the diseases in question.

Seven of the ischaemic cases began with angina pectoris, four with dyspnoea on exertion. Of those with dyspnoea, one had rheumatic heart disease and another had hypertensive heart disease as well as occlusive coronary atherosclerosis. Thus only two of those with pure ischaemic heart disease started their symptoms with dyspnoea.

In the hypertensive group, on the other hand, seventeen out of twenty-three with cardiac symptoms complained first of breathlessness, the initial symptom was fatigue in four of the remainder, and dropsy in the other two.

Course Six ischaemic patients recovered sufficiently after the onset of cardiac symptoms to resume work without distress. The duration of this improvement was six months to two years. The work undertaken was not light, and one of them worked as a navvy for a year after his first myocardial

infarction Thirteen out of the fifteen ischæmic cases developed myocardial infarction sooner or later, the two that died without this development were complicated, one by polycythæmia vera, the other by hypertensive heart disease Six patients had paroxysmal cardiac dyspnœa following myocardial infarction, and five of these later developed systemic congestion Two others had heart failure with systemic congestion without evidence of preceding left ventricular failure

In the hypertensive group recovery of function was rare after the onset of cardiac symptoms, and was observed in only two out of twenty-three patients Both experienced acute pulmonary œdema on unaccustomed effort, and subsequently recovered to the extent that they remained free from all symptoms for several months, even though they carried out their normal duties In the remainder the condition steadily deteriorated

The full course of hypertensive heart disease was witnessed in six patients effort dyspnœa progressed to left ventricular failure at rest, and this was followed by failure with systemic congestion The average duration of life after cardiac symptoms appeared was two years and one month, the range being six to forty-eight months

Five cases gave no history of orthopnœa or paroxysmal cardiac dyspnœa, but after a period of effort dyspnœa developed heart failure with systemic congestion Occasionally, the initial symptom was dropsy The average duration of life from the onset of cardiac symptoms was two years and five months in this group, the range being six to eighty-four months

Six patients died from non-cardiac causes at the stage of left ventricular failure—four from uræmia, one from cerebral hæmorrhage, and one from bronchopneumonia The duration of cardiac symptoms in this group was twelve months (1 to 24 months)

Six patients died from non-cardiac causes at the stage of effort dyspnœa—two from cerebral hæmorrhage, two following herniotomy, one from pneumonia, and one from hæmatemesis due to peptic ulcer The average duration of cardiac symptoms was two years and three months (1 to 84 months)

The remaining four cases had no cardiac symptoms Two died with uræmia, one from cerebral hæmorrhage, and one from pulmonary embolism

Thus the courses of ischæmic and hypertensive heart disease were similar in that left ventricular failure usually preceded failure with systemic congestion, they were dissimilar in that temporary recovery of function followed the onset of cardiac symptoms in about a third of the ischæmic cases, whereas steady deterioration characterized those

with hypertension It is interesting and important that only one patient initially classed as hypertensive was transferred later to the ischæmic group because of the development of angina pectoris or myocardial infarction

INCIDENTS IN THE COURSE OF HYPERTENSIVE HEART DISEASE

During the course of hypertensive heart disease certain events were observed that deserve special comment, for their significance was clinically obscure Pathological studies clarified some of them

Case 8 At one stage this man was severely constipated, and developed atypical chest pain followed by a lower blood pressure than usual, by a weaker cardiac impulse, and by left ventricular failure The electrocardiogram showed low voltage QRS complexes and flat T waves in all leads At necropsy, the heart showed marked left ventricular hypertrophy and weighed 695 g In the skiagrams the coronary arteries appeared to be slightly smaller than those seen in other hypertensive hearts of similar weight, and their outlines were rather irregular, there were, however, no points of severe narrowing The cardiac muscle showed patchy fibrosis at the base of the left ventricle posteriorly The attack may have been due to temporary coronary insufficiency (Master *et al*, 1947)

Case 19 For two years in this case there was frequent complaint of an ache behind the right shoulder, aggravated by exertion, and sometimes accompanied by a dull heavy ache in both arms Latterly it was never mentioned At autopsy, the left ventricle was hypertrophied and the heart weighed 480 g Skiagrams showed coronary arteries of good size and with smooth outlines There was no evidence of coronary narrowing nor of myocardial damage It is concluded that the pain was not ischæmic

Case 24 Six weeks before death this woman was seized with substernal pain, accompanied by pallor, sweating, cold skin, marked drop in blood pressure, and slight hæmoptysis Serial cardiograms revealed the characteristic pattern of massive pulmonary embolism The heart weighed only 340 g The coronary arteries were larger than normal There was no sign of coronary narrowing or myocardial damage The presence of a relatively recent massive pulmonary embolism was confirmed

Case 51 This man's symptoms began with acute pulmonary œdema after climbing some stairs He was admitted with the diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction, but there was no convincing evidence of this Cardiograms, however, were not obtained The heart weighed 495 g Skiagrams showed the coronary arteries to be narrowed with irregular

outlines There was complete occlusion of the right recurrent branch, and a recent infarct at the base of the left ventricle posteriorly The original diagnosis was correct and subsequent clinical judgment at fault

Case 38 While in hospital this patient had an attack of severe substernal pain Pallor and coldness of the skin were associated, and pericardial friction was heard later But the blood pressure did not alter, and there were no electrocardiographic changes The heart weighed 738 g There was an organizing fibrinous pericarditis Skiagrams showed the coronary arteries to be large with smooth outlines There was no narrowing and no myocardial damage Pericarditis was responsible for the pain

Case 53 This woman had severe attacks of paroxysmal cardiac dyspnoea associated with syncope and substernal pain or choking She also had attacks of left breast pain which radiated down the left arm and lasted two days When the venous pressure was high she complained of præcordial tightness, this was twice relieved by venesection The heart weighed 555 g Skiagrams showed coronary arteries of good size with smooth outlines There was no narrowing and no myocardial damage Pain might have been due to transient coronary insufficiency associated with left ventricular failure

Case 63 After partial recovery from left ventricular failure this man was pulled up on effort by a choking sensation in the throat accompanied by vague præcordial pain Dyspnoea always preceded this sensation Rest brought quick relief The heart weighed 900 g (the largest in the series) The coronary arteries were greatly enlarged and showed smooth outlines free from any points of narrowing Histologically the myocardium was healthy except for a few microscopic points of fibrosis at the apex and base of the left ventricle The fibrosis was focal and of the type frequently seen with myocardial ischaemia The findings suggest that in spite of their enlargement the coronary arteries may have been inadequate to supply the enormous bulk of cardiac muscle, and pain may have been due to relative coronary insufficiency

Case 65 This woman, during the last two months of her life, developed substernal pain on effort, radiating to the right side of the neck, to the axillae, and passing down the inner sides of both arms to the elbows It lasted ten minutes or so, and was associated with numbness and whiteness of the right hand for about twenty minutes It was worse in cold weather, and was relieved by rest The heart weighed 450 g Skiagrams showed the coronary arteries to be of good size and free from narrowing The myocardium showed no damage Coronary spasm was probably responsible for the pain

It is concluded that atypical thoracic pain in the course of hypertensive heart disease may be due to

relative coronary insufficiency associated with left ventricular failure, to coronary spasm, to massive pulmonary embolism, or to pericarditis

MODE OF DEATH

Thirteen of the fifteen ischaemic cases died from the disease itself—ten of them abruptly and, in a sense, unexpectedly, and the other three slowly in congestive heart failure

In contrast, only eleven of the twenty three hypertensive cases with cardiac symptoms died from heart disease Only two died suddenly—one with a dissecting aneurysm of the aorta, the other while under the influence of too much digitalis The other nine died slowly in congestive heart failure, and continuous cardiograms at the time of death in three of them showed that the mechanism was not ventricular fibrillation or sudden standstill, but a slowly increasing depression of conduction

SYMPTOMS AND SIGNS

Cerebral symptoms Symptoms resulting from disturbances of the cerebral circulation, apart from Cheyne-Stokes breathing, which was associated with heart failure in both groups, were confined to the hypertensive cases, with the exception of one patient with ischaemic heart disease who had a stroke The following conditions were noted blurring of vision due to papilloedema (4 cases), sometimes progressing to blindness (2), severe headaches (6), mental deterioration (4), cerebral hæmorrhage (4), cerebral thrombosis (4), and hypertensive encephalopathy (1)

Renal symptoms Nocturia occurred in five of the ischaemic and in twelve of the hypertensive cases Uræmia developed in six of those with hypertension, but not in the others

Peripheral vascular symptoms Two of the hypertensive group exhibited the Raynaud phenomenon, and one intermittent claudication Symptoms of peripheral vascular disease were not present in the patients with ischaemic heart disease

Body-weight In the ischaemic group body weights ranged from 6 stone 7 pounds to 13 stone 7 pounds, and on the whole were average Of the women, two were unduly obese and two were unduly thin, of the men only one weighed more than 13 stone

In the hypertensive group, six patients were very obese, their weights ranging between 14 and 22 stone In twelve cases there was considerable loss of weight (1 to 7 stone)

Cardiac rhythm The rhythm was normal in ten of the fifteen ischaemic cases permanent auricular

fibrillation was present in one, paroxysmal auricular fibrillation in three, paroxysmal auricular flutter in two, and paroxysmal tachycardia in one. These seven rhythm changes occurred in five different patients. The fact is stressed that permanent auricular fibrillation occurred in only one case, indeed it only occurred once in the larger clinical series of fifty-six cases.

In the hypertensive group the rhythm was normal in twenty-one instances, auricular fibrillation occurred in the remaining six and was permanent in five of them. Other rhythm changes were not observed. Permanent auricular fibrillation occurred in 10 per cent of the larger series.

Of the six patients with auricular fibrillation, four had heart failure, or, putting it in another way, four out of eleven patients with heart failure had auricular fibrillation. Again, out of sixteen hypertensive patients without heart failure, only two had auricular fibrillation.

Contrasting the two groups it is seen that auricular fibrillation is more common in hypertensive than in ischæmic heart disease.

Cardiac impulse The character of the cardiac impulse was described as forceful or thrusting in only three of the fifteen patients with ischæmic heart disease. Usually it was impalpable. In the hypertensive group, on the other hand, it was described as heaving in nineteen. This difference is considered significant and important.

Valves Apart from one patient with organic mitral incompetence, due to concomitant rheumatic heart disease, there were no valve lesions in the ischæmic group. Aortic incompetence, however, occurred in four of those with hypertensive heart disease. It might be better described as an aortic leak, and appeared to be due to dilatation of the aortic ring resulting from high blood pressure. There was no peripheral vascular evidence of reflux and the diastolic blood pressure was not lowered. Seven patients had a mitral systolic murmur, and two had a soft mitral diastolic murmur. Both types of murmur were attributed to dilatation of the left ventricle.

Fundi Apart from one patient with a combination of hypertensive and ischæmic heart disease and one with a single small exudate, the fundi were normal in the ischæmic group. In those with hypertension, on the other hand, marked hypertensive retinopathy with papilloedema, exudates, and hæmorrhages occurred in seven instances, exudates and hæmorrhages without papilloedema in one, and either exudates or hæmorrhages alone in two others.

It may be concluded that significant changes in the fundi are part of the hypertensive picture and do not occur in association with ischæmic heart

disease in the absence of diabetes (there were no such cases in this series).

Peripheral arteries In eight out of the fifteen ischæmic cases the peripheral arteries were hardened. Eleven of the twenty-seven patients with hypertension had similar vessels, in the remainder the arteries were unduly firm and rubbery, but could not be described as hard.

X-ray appearances The hearts of ischæmic cases were enlarged only when there was evidence of past or present failure, hypertension, or some other form of heart disease. Since only one patient had permanent auricular fibrillation it is not possible to comment upon the effect of this rhythm on the size of the ischæmic heart, for in that one case there was concomitant rheumatic heart disease with organic mitral incompetence. No instance of cardiac aneurysm was observed, but absence of pulsation in the region of the infarct was sometimes noted. Following heart failure (all those with failure had myocardial infarction), an enlarged cardiac shadow was always seen, the left ventricle being mainly involved.

In the hypertensive group the largest heart shadows were those associated with congestive failure. Cases without symptoms, or with effort dyspnoea only, showed slight to moderate enlargement of the left ventricle.

It is concluded that uncomplicated ischæmic heart disease does not cause cardiac enlargement, that uncomplicated hypertension causes hypertrophy of the left ventricle, and that heart failure is responsible for maximum cardiac enlargement in both groups.

Electrocardiograms In the ischæmic group cardiographic changes were those of myocardial infarction when present. The features indicated anterior infarction in the first instance in seven, and posterior in four. Two showed signs of both anterior and posterior infarction, and two had normal curves.

In the hypertensive group sixteen out of twenty-four showed left axis deviation with depression of the RS-T segment in lead I, and of these eight also showed inversion of the T wave in lead I, and three inversion of the T wave in leads I and II. Two patients had left bundle-branch-block. Two had left axis deviation without other changes. In the remaining four there was no axis deviation but there was inversion of the T wave in lead I (Case 49), in leads I and II (Case 8), in leads II and III (Case 69), and in leads I, II, and III (Case 19). All those with heart failure showed significant changes.

It is concluded that left axis deviation with depression of the RS-T segment with or without inversion of the T wave in lead I, or in leads I and II, is the

typical cardiographic pattern of severe hypertensive heart disease this pattern was not observed in a single case of myocardial ischaemia. In cases of old-standing anterior myocardial infarction with persistent inversion of the T wave in lead I, there was no depression of the RS-T segment.

The hypertensive pattern with T I inverted was found in a third of the hypertensive group and in two out of twenty-eight mixed cases in the larger clinical series.

Blood pressure The average blood pressure of six ischaemic cases prior to myocardial infarction was 180/95 after infarction the average pressure in eleven cases was 125/80. In the majority many readings were obtained the highest average figure following infarction was 160/110. In two patients the blood pressure was taken immediately after an attack of myocardial infarction and was found to be elevated in both these cases it dropped slowly following the initial rise and did not reach its lowest level until the third or fourth day. This delayed fall of blood pressure following myocardial infarction, with or without an initial rise, has been observed repeatedly in other cases in the clinical series. Attention is drawn to this fact and also to the frequency of moderate elevations of blood pressure found in ischaemic heart disease prior to myocardial infarction, elevations that are rarely accompanied by enlargement of the heart. Of fifty-six cases in the clinical series the blood pressure was less than 165/95 in 74 per cent.

The blood pressures of the hypertensive cases were necessarily high owing to the arbitrary classification employed. The average range was 245/140–190/115. The highest individual figure was 300/170, and the lowest 110/80. There were several features of interest.

First, there was no case in which the blood pressure was observed to drop as a result of heart failure. A terminal fall was common, but heart failure had often preceded this by weeks, months, or years.

Secondly, when the blood pressure fell much there was usually an obvious cause. This was haemorrhage in one case, shock from a strangulated hernia in another, massive pulmonary embolism in a third, and impending death in two others.

Thirdly the onset or cessation of auricular fibrillation, which was observed in Case 38, did not effect the blood pressure, whether there was heart failure or not (when there was fibrillation the pressure recorded was that at which most of the beats came through, and not the maximum pressure which was always higher).

Fourthly, two patients usually had normal pressures when at rest in bed, whether in heart failure or otherwise, but when up and about the figures

climbed to over 200/110 with or without heart failure. One of these patients lived for seven years following the onset of cardiac symptoms—a record for the series.

Renal function No case of pure ischaemic heart disease was complicated by serious impairment of renal function as judged by urine concentration and by the urea clearance test. In the whole ischaemic group there was only one case with bad renal function, and that was a case with associated hypertensive heart disease. Even albuminuria was very rare apart from heart failure.

The hypertensive cases, on the other hand, frequently showed considerable impairment of renal function, and six of them died with uraemia. Twelve out of twenty-seven had less than 44 per cent of normal renal function as judged by the urea clearance test. Albuminuria occurred in all but one, granular casts were found in seven, there was considerable impairment of urine concentration in ten.

It may be concluded that impairment of renal function is a feature of the hypertensive state, and is unrelated to ischaemic heart disease.

Blood count There was not a single case with anaemia in the ischaemic group, but there were two with polycythaemia. In contrast to this, nine hypertensive patients were anaemic, the red cell count being under 4,000,000 per c mm, or the haemoglobin being under 60 per cent.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ISCHAEMIC AND HYPERTENSIVE HEART DISEASE

The chief differences between ischaemic and hypertensive heart disease are shown in Table II. The evidence is based on the clinical features alone, and will be reviewed later in the light of the autopsy findings which were not known when the table was compiled.

PATHOLOGICAL FINDINGS

To obtain the desired pathological information, a technique had to be devised that would enable us to form an accurate estimate of the capacity of the coronary lumina during life, to trace the exact position of any vascular or myocardial lesions, and to preserve the tissues for histological study. It was decided that these requirements would be met by injecting the coronary arteries with a radio-opaque gel, followed by radiography and subsequent clearing of the whole heart after the method of Gross (1921). In order that the degree of vascular distension should be comparable with that obtained during life, all cases were injected at the known diastolic pressure of the patient. The only

TABLE II
THE CHIEF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ISCHÆMIC AND HYPERTENSIVE HEART DISEASE

Feature	Ischæmic cases (15)	Hypertensive cases (27)
Complaint	Pain	Breathlessness
Sex	Male female=2 1	Male female=1 1
Age	Males av 56.5 years Females av 67.8 years	Males av 59.2 years Females av 54.6 years
Onset	Dyspnoea in 20% Usually pain	Dyspnoea in 75% Sometimes fatigue or dropsy
Course	Temporary good recovery in 40% Myocardial infarction in 13 out of 15	Temporary good recovery in less than 10% Development of infarction necessitating change of classification—1 case
Mode of death	Cardiac death 13/15 (abrupt 10/13)	Cardiac death in 11/23 (abrupt 2/11)
Symptoms from disturbances of the cerebral circulation	Rare apart from cerebral thrombosis	Blurring of vision 4 Blindness 2 Severe headaches 6 Mental changes 4 Cerebral hæmorrhage 4 Cerebral thrombosis 4
Renal failure	Very rare Renal function tests usually good Albuminuria rare apart from heart failure	Six died with uræmia Van Slyke less than 44% in 12 out of 27 Albuminuria in all but one Hypertensive retinopathy in 10 out of 27
Fundi	Normal in all but one	Anæmia in 9/27
Blood count	Anæmia did not occur Polycythæmia in 2	
Rhythm	Permanent auricular fibrillation 1	Permanent auricular fibrillation 5
Cardiac impulse	Forceful or heaving in 3, usually impalpable	Heaving in 19, usually located with ease
Valves	Normal	Aortic leak in 4
Blood pressure	Average 180/95 before infarction Average 125/80 after infarction	Av range 245/140 to 190/115
X-ray	Normal prior to heart failure Always enlarged after development of heart failure	Slight to moderate enlargement prior to heart failure Considerably enlarged after development of heart failure
Electrocardiogram	Normal or typical changes of myocardial infarction The pattern described in the hypertensive column was not seen in a single case	Left axis deviation with depression of the RS-T segment with or without inversion of the T wave, usually in lead I alone, sometimes in leads I and II, in 75%.

exception to this was in the case of normal controls in which the blood pressure was not known. In these cases a standard pressure of 90 mm Hg was used.

The apparatus (Fig. 1) consisted of a simple fluid column leading down from an adjustable container and connected to a mercury manometer. This was filled with warmed normal saline and served to wash out the blood from the coronary vessels and also to supply the required head of pressure for injection. The fluid column led directly to a Y piece connected to two cannulæ for perfusing the heart, but was connected also to a shunt circuit containing two bottles, one to act as a pressure chamber and the other to contain the injection mass. When this circuit was shut off, the apparatus perfused saline through the coronary vessels, but when the direct circuit was closed and the shunt circuit opened, the saline displaced the air from the pressure chamber into the bottle containing the injection

mass, driving the latter into the cannulæ. The barium-gelatine injection mass was prepared according to the technique of Gross.

Procedure. At autopsy the heart was carefully dissected out, clots were dislodged and the heart weighed. It was then placed in normal saline and left at room temperature until it was injected a few hours later (usually three hours). The proximal parts of both coronary arteries were then defined and under-run with ligatures. Two cannulæ were then tied in, the whole manœuvre being carried out under water at 37° C. This warmed the heart to body temperature and also prevented any bubbles entering the coronary arteries. The heart was then perfused with normal saline at 37° C until the fluid issuing from the coronary sinus was relatively clear (about 1 minute). The circuit was then changed, and the warm gelatine mass injected at the same pressure. When the mass could be seen to have entered the fine arterioles in the pericardium, the

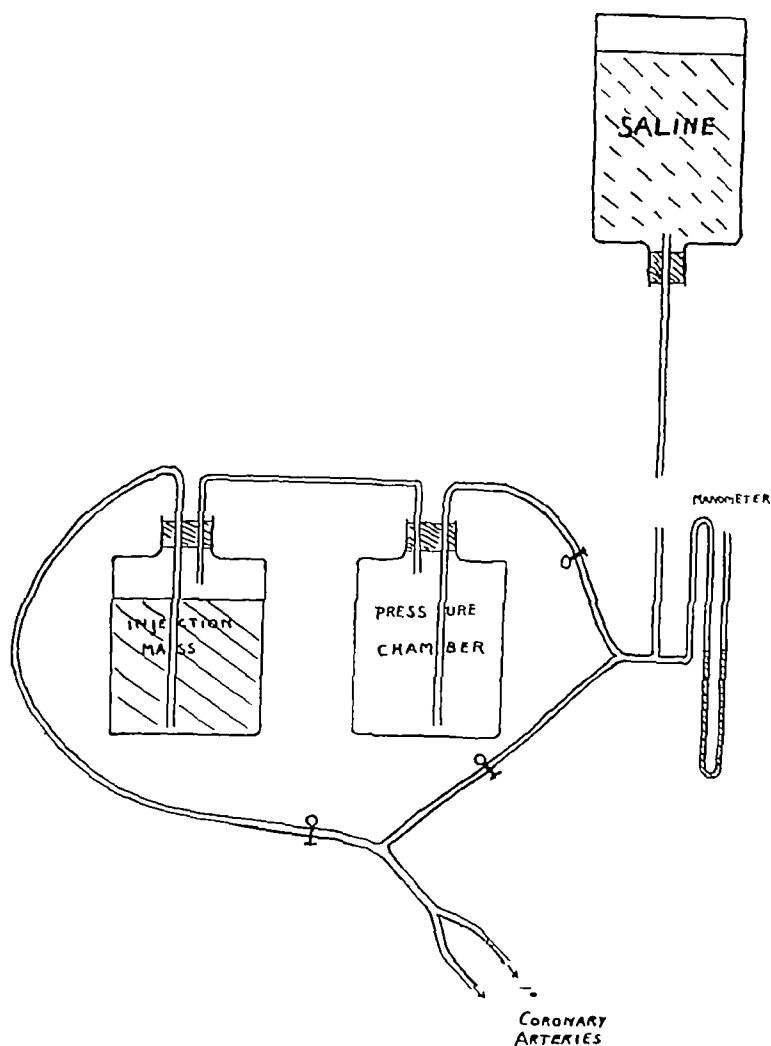


FIG 1—Apparatus used for injecting the coronary circulation with barium gel
For description see text

heart was placed in iced water until the gelatine had set, and then transferred to a bath of formol-saline for 24 hours. Stereoscopic skiagrams were then taken according to standard technique. The heart was then returned to formol-saline and left to fix for about ten days. Next, four routine blocks of myocardium were excised and frozen sections stained for fat. These were taken from the apices of the left and right ventricles anteriorly and from the bases of the ventricles posteriorly. Special blocks were also taken from other sites as indicated. The heart was then passed through increasing concentrations of alcohol from 30 per cent to

absolute alcohol, in steps of 10 per cent, remaining about three days in each bath. By this means complete dehydration was obtained in about three weeks.

Old used alcohol was utilized for the lower concentrations, fresh absolute alcohol being employed only for the final one or two baths. This proved satisfactory and saved considerable quantities of alcohol. When the heart was dehydrated it was transferred to a bath of used methyl salicylate and later to fresh methyl salicylate. By this means the tissue was rendered relatively transparent. The coronary vessels, which stood out clearly owing to

the presence of the opaque injection mass, could thus be studied in detail and compared with their skiagrams

Blocks for section were then taken from the major coronary vessels (8 or more) and from the myocardium (5 or more). The myocardial blocks were obtained from five standard sites: the anterior apical and posterior basal parts of the right and left ventricle, and the upper anterior part of the inter-ventricular septum. Additional blocks were taken from any other sites that showed anatomical changes. The blocks were washed in chloroform over night and embedded in paraffin.

RESULTS

Normal controls Twelve normal controls, representing each decade of life from the third to the eighth, were examined by the standard technique (Fig 3 and 7). In no case was there any evidence of heart disease or of high blood pressure either during life or at autopsy. The details of the cases are given in Table III. It is not proposed to discuss in detail the normal findings in injected hearts. This has already been done by Gross (1921) and in so far as the normal anatomy of the coronary tree is concerned, our findings are in agreement with his.

But we would add the important observation that coronary atheroma is compatible with an apparently normal lumen. In all twelve of this series the

skiagrams showed normal coronary outlines (Fig 3), yet coronary atheroma was subsequently discovered in five, and was severe in three. In this connection it should be noted that the size of the coronary lumen in a paraffin section gives little or no indication of its real size during life. It was repeatedly noted both in normal and pathological hearts that where sections showed coronary narrowing, skiagrams might reveal no abnormality.

It is of course open to question how far such skiagrams reflect the state of the vessels during life, but we believe that, with the technique employed, they give the truest picture that can be obtained from an autopsy specimen. In contrast to the pathological cases, normal controls with atheroma showed no trace of myocardial fibrosis.

A second finding not emphasized by Gross was the relationship between the size of the coronary arteries and the size of the heart. Since all skiagrams were taken by a standard technique the plates are comparable as regards size. In all cases the three major coronary arteries (left anterior descending, left recurrent, and right) were measured near their origins. From their diameters their total cross-sectional area was calculated and plotted against the weight of the heart. The resulting graph (Fig 2) showed a fairly close scatter around a straight line, and indicates that there is a direct relationship between the bulk of the cardiac muscle and its blood supply.

TABLE III
CONTROL CASES SIZE OF HEART AND OF CORONARY ARTERY

Case No	Age	Sex	Heart weight (grams)	Total coronary bore (sq mm)	Coronary atheroma (microscopic)	Cause of death
12	22	F	225	27.9	—	Subarachnoid hæmorrhage
35	23	F	213	38.1	—	Polyposis coli
21	24	F	165	18.9	—	Carcinoma of colon
76	34	F	280	29.7	—	Carcinoma of stomach
72	39	M	282	36.5	±	Acute appendicitis
77	47	F	190	32.3	—	Carcinoma of cervix uteri
1	54	M	265	20.0	+	Seminoma of testis
14	55	M	200	28.7	+	Carcinoma of œsophagus
10	56	F	308	32.0	—	Bronchitis
64	61	M	365	59.0	—	Carcinoma of lip
26	73	F	310	39.4	+	Primary carcinoma of liver
27	80	M	400	36.5	±	Cirrhosis of liver
<i>Hypertrophied controls</i>						
67	46	M	495	46.6	—	Cor pulmonale
71	60	M	495	41.8	—	Syphilitic aortic incompetence
54	71	F	585	51.5	±	Osteitis deformans Heart block
20	60	M	643	44.4	—	Rheumatic mitral and aortic disease
59	64	M	850	71.6	±	Rheumatic aortic incompetence

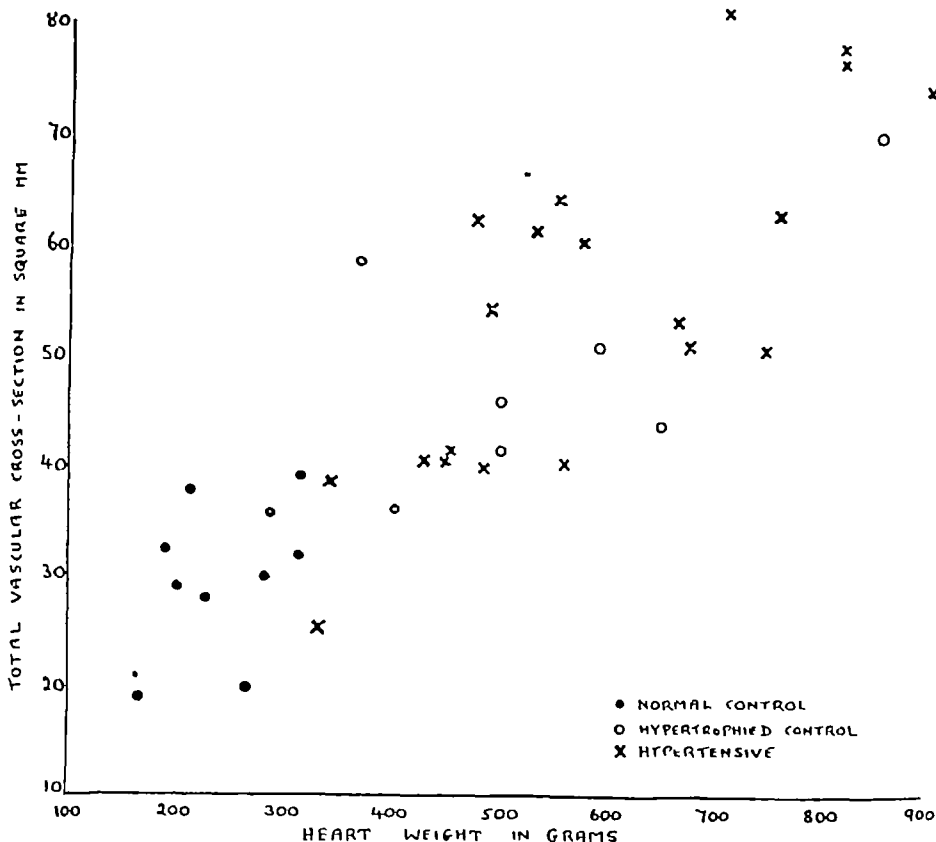


FIG 2—Graph illustrating the linear relationship between the heart weight and the total cross section of the main coronary vessels in normal controls, controls with hypertrophied hearts and in cases of hypertensive heart disease

HYPERTENSIVE GROUP

It soon became apparent that the pathological findings were totally different in the two types of case. Though the differences in morbid anatomy and histology between ischaemic and hypertensive heart disease are well known, the dissimilarity was emphasized by the skiagrams. The ischaemic hearts showed narrow coronary vessels with irregular outlines, and, as a rule, one or more complete occlusions (Fig 6, 9, and 10). The hypertensive hearts, on the other hand, showed large wide coronary arteries with smooth outlines and no narrowing. There were a certain number that showed evidence of both hypertension and ischaemia.

This group comprised twenty-seven cases of clinical hypertensive heart disease, subdivided into four groups according to their severity (page 205). The main pathological findings are summarized in Table IV.

Heart weight All but two showed cardiac hypertrophy, the mean cardiac weight for the whole group being 597 g \pm 149 g. It will be noted from Table IV that the degree of cardiac hypertrophy expressed as total heart weight is fairly closely related to the clinical severity of the disease judged by the functional state of the heart. In the cases that ran a full cardiac course and died in congestive failure, the mean weight was 729 g. In the cases that showed evidence of left heart failure but did not die a cardiac death, the mean heart weight was 585 g. In those with effort dyspnoea only the mean weight was 492 g. Finally, in the four cases with no cardiac symptoms, the mean weight was only 406 g.

In all cases the increased cardiac weight was mainly due to left ventricular hypertrophy. Right ventricular hypertrophy was difficult to estimate. Owing to the hearts being cleared intact it was not

TABLE IV
HYPERTENSIVE CASES SIZE OF HEART AND CORONARY ARTERIES
Died without cardiac symptoms

No	Age	Sex	Blood pressure	Heart weight (grams)	Total coronary bore (sq mm)	Coronary atheroma		Myocardial fibrosis		R V hypertrophy	Mode of death
						X-ray	Micro	Retic	Focal		
24	63	F	260/120	340	39.0	—	+	—	—	+	Pulmonary embolism
47	63	F	250/130	485	55.2	—	—	±	—	—	Cerebral hæmorrhage
60	46	F	280/140	470	63.0	—	±	+	—	—	Uræmia
69	21	F	250/130	330	25.3	—	—	—	—	—	Uræmia

Died with effort dyspnoea

23	44	F	225/130	425	41.1	—	—	+	—	—	Cerebral hæmorrhage
36	58	F	220/135	545	64.8	—	±	+	—	±	Herniotomy
39	68	M	210/100	525	62.0	—	±	—	—	—	Herniotomy
43	87	F	230/150	440	—	±	±	—	+	—	Pneumonia
44	49	M	290/140	570	60.8	—	+	—	—	±	Cerebral hæmorrhage
65	44	F	230/120	450	42.3	—	±	+	—	—	Hæmatemesis

Died with left ventricular failure

11	56	M	243/125	700	82.4	—	+	+	—	+	Cerebral hæmorrhage
13	67	F	260/125	447	41.1	—	±	+	—	—	Uræmia
19	42	F	260/160	480	40.6	—	±	—	—	—	Uræmia
41	64	F	280/145	575	—	+	+	—	—	±	Uræmia
45	54	F	260/120	660	53.8	—	±	—	—	+	Uræmia
68	67	M	200/125	650	—	±	+	+	—	—	Pneumonia

Died in congestive cardiac failure

8	60	M	250/150	695	—	±	+	+	+	+	
28	69	M	150/120	750	63.8	—	±	+	—	+	
32	50	M	170/115	670	51.7	—	—	+	±	+	
38	53	M	270/140	738	51.5	—	+	—	—	+	
48	51	M	220/125	710	—	±	+	+	±	+	
49	54	F	200/100	810	79.3	—	±	+	±	+	
50	54	M	190/140	820	—	+	+	+	+	+	
53	59	F	190/110	555	41.1	—	±	+	—	+	
58	66	M	210/140	810	78.1	—	±	+	—	+	
62	68	M	220/135	560	—	+	+	—	+	—	
63	60	M	180/110	900	76.1	—	±	+	±	+	

possible to dissect off the right ventricle and weigh it separately, moreover, after clearing, it was considered that estimates of hypertrophy were of doubtful value owing to shrinkage. An attempt was made to estimate the degree of right ventricular hypertrophy histologically and the results are given in Table IV. Hypertrophy was obvious in fourteen cases, slight in four, and absent or unrecognizable in nine. The incidence of right ventricular hypertrophy in the different groups is of interest. In the eleven cases that died in congestive heart failure,

right ventricular hypertrophy was present in all but one—this one was complicated by severe coronary sclerosis. It is assumed that this hypertrophy was due to the strain thrown on the right heart by failure of the left ventricle.

The same explanation may be given for cases of right ventricular hypertrophy in the second group, for although these patients did not die in congestive failure, they had evidence of left ventricular failure during life. In the other two groups there was insufficient left ventricular failure to account for

right ventricular hypertrophy. Case 43, however, was complicated by emphysema, and Case 24 by old pulmonary embolism. The remainder showed very slight, if any, hypertrophy. Apart from hypertrophy the myocardium appeared healthy in twenty-six cases. In the twenty-seventh (Case 62) there was macroscopic evidence of infarction.

Endocardium One (Case 48) showed calcifica-

tion of the aortic valve of Mönckeberg type, not causing appreciable stenosis or incompetence. All other cases were free from valve disease.

Radiography

It will be most convenient to describe first the typical findings in this group and then to discuss the

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FIG 3 —Normal control. Case 76. Heart 280 g. skigram of injected heart. Note size of coronary arteries and their smooth outlines. (All skigrams are 0.6 of natural size and are comparable.)

exceptions. The most striking feature was enlargement of the coronary arteries (Fig 4 and 5). In 20 this enlargement was conspicuous: the outlines of the coronary lumina were perfectly smooth and there was no suggestion of irregularity or focal narrowing. The degree of coronary enlargement appeared to increase *pari passu* with hypertrophy of the heart. When the three main coronary

arteries were measured in the same way as the controls and their total cross sectional area plotted against the cardiac weight (Fig 2), a fairly close scatter around a straight line was observed, which proved to be a continuation of that previously described in controls. This strongly suggests that the size of the coronary arteries is dependent on the size of the heart, and that they enlarge in response to

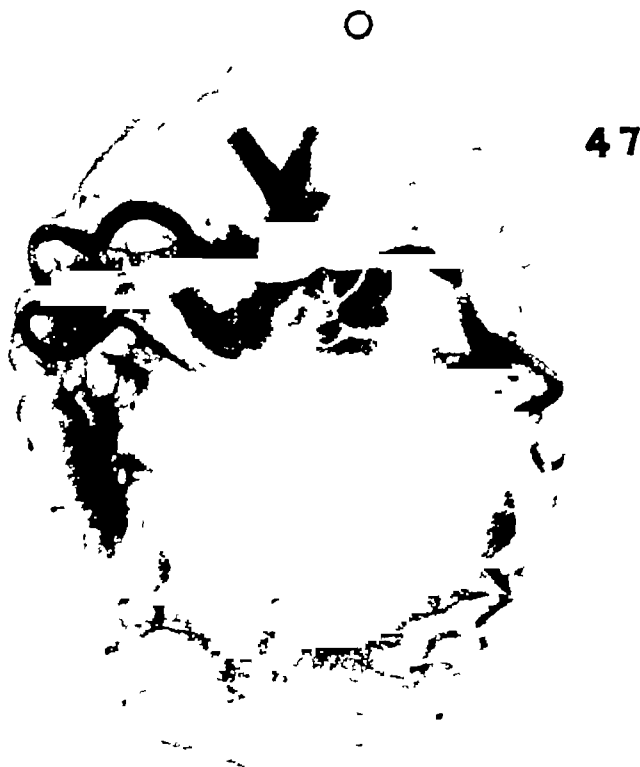


FIG 4—Hypertensive heart disease. Case 47, died before cardiac symptoms arose. Heart 485 g. Note enlargement of heart and coronary arteries and the smooth outlines of the latter.

an increased demand. There is, however, an alternative explanation, namely that the coronary arteries are dilated by the raised pressure within them, or that the pressure at which they were injected caused them to dilate more than controls injected at lower pressure. The latter possibility is refuted by the fact that two hypertensive cases (Cases 49 and 53) injected at low pressure (because

the diastolic pressure had fallen some time before death) revealed coronary arteries as large as any injected at higher pressures.

To investigate the possibility that coronary dilatation was the direct result of raised blood pressure during life, we injected five cases of cardiac hypertrophy due to other causes, namely, rheumatic valvular disease (Cases 20 and 59), syphilitic aortic



FIG 5—Hypertensive heart disease. Case 49, died of congestive failure. Heart 810 g. Note enormous heart and coronary arteries and the smooth outlines of the latter.

regurgitation (Case 71), cor pulmonale (Case 67) and osteitis deformans (Case 54), all showed a degree of coronary enlargement similar to that seen in hypertensive heart disease (Fig 2) It is concluded that coronary vascular enlargement is related to cardiac hypertrophy

Seven out of the twenty-seven cases showed some evidence of occlusive coronary atheroma in the

skilograms In four (Cases 8, 48, 43, 68) this was slight, constituting no more than minor irregularities of outline and relatively small calibre in relation to the size of the heart, there were no points of gross narrowing In three of these cases the myocardium showed a few small foci of fibrosis in the fourth no lesion was detected Each of the other three (Cases 41, 50, 62) showed severe coronary sclerosis



FIG 6—Ischæmic heart disease Case 66 Heart 565 g Note narrow irregular, calcified coronaries with several occlusions

with narrowing of the lumen, at least one complete occlusion, and evidence of myocardial ischaemia. Clinically it is interesting to note that Cases 50 and 62 died suddenly. Case 41 died in uraemia.

Cleared specimens. All cases were subjected to "clearing" in methyl salicylate, the cleared specimens (Fig 8) being compared with the skiagrams. This confirmed the conclusions drawn from the

latter and was of great value in selecting segments of the coronary vessels for histology. It did not, however, add any further information. Cleared specimens were not used for measurements owing to the shrinkage that occurs in the process of clearing.

Histology. Coronary arteries. Twenty three cases (all but Cases 23, 32, 47, and 69) showed histological evidence of atheroma, yet the skia-



FIG 7—Normal control. Case 35. Heart weight 213 g. Cleared specimen showing white injection mass filling lumen of coronary arteries. Note the perfectly smooth outlines.

grams of sixteen of them exhibited normal coronary outlines, confirming the observation made in the controls that atheroma need not narrow the lumen. Atheroma in these cases was relatively slight and of patchy distribution. The seven cases that showed narrowing or irregularity of the arteries in the skiagrams all showed severe and generalized atheroma histologically. Two other features deserve com-

ment. In adult life normal coronary arteries have a well developed intima thicker than that of other arteries of similar size (von Glahn, 1936). In the hypertensive cases this layer tended to be thicker than in controls. Secondly, the media was hypertrophied.

An unexpected finding was polyarteritis nodosa in Case 32. This affected the majority of the small



FIG 8—Hypertensive heart. Case 36. Heart weight 545 g. Cleared injected specimen showing dilatation of coronary lumen and smooth outlines, indicating absence of occlusive coronary atheroma.

arteries throughout the body, but most of the coronary vessels were spared

Histology Myocardium Evidence of hypertrophy has already been described. In addition, however, necrosis was seen in two cases. In Case 62 there were recent infarcts at both the apex and base of the left ventricle following severe coronary atheroma and thrombosis. In Case 41 there were numerous adjacent foci of infarction at the apex of the left ventricle, following thrombosis of the descending branch of the left coronary artery.

Fatty change Fatty degeneration of slight or moderate severity was found in fourteen out of the twenty-seven cases. It did not appear to be correlated with the size of the heart, with the state of the coronary circulation, or with any other known factor, and we have therefore been unable to attach any significance to it.

Myocardial fibrosis was seen in the hypertensive cases in three forms, which we have called healed infarcts, focal fibrosis, and reticular fibrosis. The only example of a healed infarct was in Case 62 in which it was associated with an old coronary occlusion.

Focal fibrosis took the form of small foci (under 1 mm) in which the muscle fibres had been replaced by collagen. In most cases replacement was complete, but occasionally necrotic muscle fibres were still visible. This lesion, which was seen with greater frequency and severity in the ischaemic group, occurred in seven of the hypertensive group (Cases 8, 32, 43, 48, 49, 50, and 63). The skiagrams of four of these (Cases 8, 43, 48, and 50) showed coronary narrowing, but in the other three (Cases 32, 49, and 63) the coronary arteries had uniformly wide lumina and smooth outlines. Case 32 had polyarteritis and since some of the smaller vessels in the myocardium were involved (but not the main coronary vessels) it is fair to assume that fibrosis was the result of occlusion of small vessels. Cases 49 and 63 died in congestive failure, and fibrosis might be attributed to relative coronary insufficiency, but we must point out that the vessels were large and free from any obstruction.

The third type of fibrosis, which we have called reticular, was always associated with gross muscular hypertrophy. It occurred in seventeen cases and took the form of an exaggeration of the normal interstitial reticular connective tissue fibres. In the normal heart these are extremely fine and can only be satisfactorily demonstrated by silver impregnation, but in cases of gross hypertrophy they thickened and became clearly visible as fine collagenous fibres surrounding the muscle fibres (Fig. 11). This form of reticular fibrosis tended to occur in foci and for this reason might be mistaken for

ischaemic focal fibrosis. We believe, however, that it is a separate entity for the following reasons. Firstly, it was not seen in any of our pure ischaemic hearts, secondly, it is limited to cases of gross myocardial hypertrophy, thirdly, we were never able to demonstrate any sign of muscle loss. We consider that it is a form of concomitant fibrous tissue hypertrophy.

Renal changes The hypertensive cases were classified according to their cardiac condition, and though most were examples of essential hypertension, a few proved to be secondary to chronic nephritis. In practice the histological differentiation between nephritis and advanced arteriosclerotic kidney is extremely difficult, particularly since Ellis (1942) has shown that primary nephritis may persist with hypertension as the dominant clinical sign and arterial damage as the dominant renal change. In spite of these difficulties we have attempted to classify the kidneys in this series into hypertensive and nephritic. Seven (Cases 11, 19, 41, 47, 65, and 69) showed evidence of nephritis whilst the remaining twenty showed varying degrees of arterial damage, from a few hyaline vessels up to severe changes of the type classified as malignant hypertension. Six of the hypertensive group died in uraemia and four of these (Cases 19, 41, 45, and 69) were among those with histological evidence of nephritis. The other two (Cases 13 and 60) showed the histological appearances of malignant hypertension.

ISCHAEMIC CASES

There were fifteen cases in this group, and their main pathological findings are summarized in Table V.

Heart weight The hearts were all hypertrophied except in Case 25. The mean weight for the whole group was $495 \text{ g} \pm 76 \text{ g}$, the range being 350–650 g. Such a degree of hypertrophy suggests that either ischaemic hearts may become hypertrophied during their course or that our cases were complicated by hypertension. It will be seen from Table V that eight cases had some degree of hypertension during life. The mean heart weight of these was 497 g , whilst the mean heart weight of those without hypertension was 494 g . Thus there is no correlation between heart weight and hypertension in this series. On the other hand, if the cases are divided according to the duration of cardiac failure, some correlation becomes apparent. Those with left ventricular failure for two months or more (6 cases) had a mean heart weight of $549 \text{ g} \pm 56 \text{ g}$, whereas those with terminal or no congestion (9 cases) had a mean heart weight of $459 \text{ g} \pm 60 \text{ g}$. The difference

TABLE V
ISCHÆMIC CASES

Case No	Age	Sex	Blood pressure	Heart weight (grams)	Coronary* occlusion site	Myocardial†		Mode of death
						Fibrosis	Necrosis	
17	57	F	158/92	432	LD		LVA	Syncope
22	76	F	170/85	480	LD	LVA	IVS	Congestive cardiac failure
25	71	F	140/60	350	LD, R	LVA, LVP	LVA, LVP	Syncope
29	43	M	172/120	480	LD, LC	LVA	LVA, OM	Syncope
30	53	M	150/110	535	LD, LC	LVA, OM		Syncope
37	60	M	184/80	590	R	LVA	LVP	Congestive cardiac failure
40	47	M	120/80	580	LD, LC	LVA, LVP	LVP	Lung abscess
42	61	M	220/140	425			LVA	Syncope
46	55	M	190/100	400	LD, R	LVA	LVP	Hemopericardium
51	65	M	95/60	495	R		LVP, RVP	Sepsis
52	53	M	120/80	480	LD, LC	LVA	LVA, LVP	Congestive cardiac failure
55	71	F	175/105	630	LD, R		LVP	Congestive cardiac failure
66	69	M	140/80	656	LC, R	OM	LVP, RVP	Myocardial infarction
70	63	M	140/105	480	LC, R	LVP	LVP	Myocardial infarction
73	64	F	180/110	505	LD, LC, R	LVP, LVA	LVA, LVP	Congestive cardiac failure

* LD = Left descending branch LC = Left circumflex branch R = Right coronary

† LVA = Left ventricle anterior LVP = Left ventricle posterior RVP = Right ventricle posterior OM = Obtuse margin IVS = Interventricular septum

is 90 g and the standard error of the difference is 9.7 g. This correlation between duration of failure and heart weight is similar to our finding in the hypertensive group, and is further evidence that cardiac failure is an important factor in the production of myocardial hypertrophy.

Coronary arteries. The skiagrams (Fig 6) and cleared specimens (Fig 9 and 10) of the injected coronary vessels in the ischæmic cases showed a characteristic picture, quite different from that of the hypertensive group. The characteristic feature was the constant presence of severe narrowing or occlusion, usually both. There was, of course, some variation in the degree and extent of the lesions. In eight cases the whole coronary tree was affected and all the major arteries were narrowed and irregular in outline, often with deposits of calcium salts in their walls. Complete occlusions in both right and left coronary arteries were usually demonstrable.

In the other seven cases arterial narrowing was limited either to one vessel (usually the left) or to part of a vessel, whilst the rest of the coronary tree was relatively normal. In some of these cases the unaffected vessels were wider than normal. The mean heart weight was slightly higher (527 g) in cases with localized coronary narrowing than in those with generalized coronary narrowing (460 g). Out of four with no history of angina of effort (Cases 17, 30, 40, and 51), three were examples of localized coronary narrowing.

Coronary occlusion was commonly multiple as

previously indicated, though in one case it was incomplete, and in four it was single, there were eight cases with two blocks and two cases with three blocks. The distribution was as follows: out of twenty-six complete occlusions eighteen were in the left coronary artery and eight in the right. Myocardial infarction was found in thirteen out of fourteen cases with one or more complete occlusions. The case without complete occlusion had no infarct but only microscopic foci of necrosis. The other (Case 37) without infarction had a solitary occlusion of the right coronary artery, and showed only microscopic necrosis. Amongst the other thirteen cases there were fourteen healed infarcts and eleven recent infarcts, all but one involving the left ventricle. The areas affected were the apex anteriorly (11 cases), the base posteriorly (10 cases), the obtuse margin (3 cases) and the base of the right ventricle posteriorly (1 case). In each of these twenty-five infarcts the appropriate coronary artery was completely occluded. There was no correlation between the type of lesion present and the mode of death. Syncopal deaths were not particularly associated with recent thrombi or infarcts.

Anastomotic vessels, just big enough to be visible in the skiagrams, were noted in all cases. These occurred in relation to the distal parts of occluded vessels, and sufficed to permit retrograde filling of these vessels. They were better seen in the "cleared" specimens (Fig 9 and 10).

Histology. *Coronary vessels.* With certain reservations histological study of the coronary

arteries confirmed the radiographic findings. In most of the skiagrams, however, no matter how irregular or narrowed the majority of the vascular lumina, some segments still looked normal both in calibre and in smoothness of outline, yet microscopically these parts also showed severe atheroma. A similar discrepancy was observed both in the controls and in the hypertensive cases, but it is

repeated for emphasis that even in manifest ischaemic heart disease, the appearance of atheroma in a section of a coronary artery does not necessarily indicate narrowing *in vivo* at that site. Again, it was quite impossible to tell from the skiagrams whether a focus of narrowing was due to atheroma or to a recanalized thrombus. On numerous occasions points of narrowing noted in the skia-



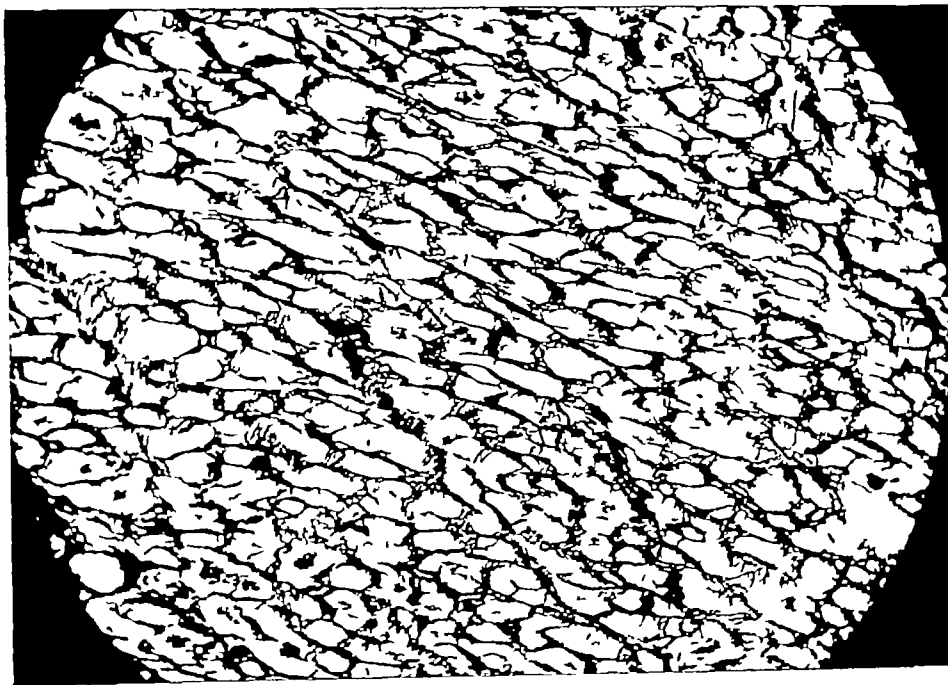
FIG 9—Ischaemic heart. Case 46. Anterior view showing small coronary arteries with irregular outlines, complete occlusion in right coronary artery, and anastomoses via pericardial vessels.

grams and in cleared specimens proved to be healed thromboses in which the recanalized lumen was as large as the adjacent narrowed atheromatous vessel. This may explain the occurrence of myocardial infarction in the presence of patent, though narrowed, vessels, for the absence of complete occlusion at autopsy does not prove the vessel was never blocked during life. These examples of organized recanalized thrombi were ones in which the histological diagnosis was unequivocal but apart from these there were many others in which such an interpretation would be difficult to refute. In late cases of recanalized thrombosis, the fibrous tissue

replacing the thrombus fuses with atheromatous lesions so intimately that we were often unable to tell whether a given lesion was atheromatous or thrombotic. This difficulty was accentuated when atheromatous lesions showed undue vascularity of hæmorrhage as described by Winternitz *et al* (1938). Both phenomena were observed in some sections of the coronary arteries in nearly every case. When the vasa vasorum were small the hæmorrhages were fresh, it seemed fair to assume that they were late effects of atheroma but when the vasa were large and ran parallel with the coronary artery, and when blood in the plaque was represented only by groups



FIG 10—Ischæmic heart. Case 25. Showing recanalized occlusion of the descending left coronary artery and irregularity of outline in others.



A



B

FIG 11—Section of heart muscle (A) *Hypertensive heart disease* (Case 11), and (B) *Control* (both magnified $\times 108$) showing hypertrophy of interstitial connective tissue in myocardial hypertrophy reticular fibrosis " Silver impregnation

of macrophages filled with pigment it became impossible to decide whether or not there had been thrombosis. This similarity lends support to the hypothesis recently put forward by Duguid (1946) that what is ordinarily regarded as coronary atheroma is, in fact, the result of organized thrombi.

Myocardium The histological appearances of the myocardium in the present series of cases conformed to the accepted descriptions of ischæmic heart disease, but there were two points that merit some discussion. The first is the time relation between coronary closure and myocardial infarction. In the majority of cases these corresponded. Recent infarcts were associated with recent thrombi and old infarcts with old thrombi. Furthermore, they were associated in position, the infarcts occurring in sites supplied by occluded vessels. We did not observe any cases in which infarction was due to the closure of a vessel supplying the infarcted area only by anastomoses, though this has been observed by Blumgart *et al* (1940). We did, however, observe three examples (Cases 29, 46, and 55) in which recent infarction was unassociated with recent thrombosis in any vessel big enough to be visible macroscopically. In two of these (Cases 29 and 46) the symptoms of the fatal infarct arose at home whilst the patient was at rest, and the lesion cannot therefore be attributed to unusual circulatory demands beyond the capacity of the coronary supply. It is possible that a period of diminished cardiac output may have reduced the coronary flow sufficiently to have precipitated the infarcts, but there was no evidence available on this point. Coronary spasm can almost certainly be excluded on the grounds that the coronary tree was too rigid for this to be possible. These cases are of importance because they may represent the late counterpart of cases of sudden death in ischæmic heart disease where neither recent occlusion nor fresh infarction is demonstrable at autopsy. It is possible that such cases, which are common in forensic practice, might show infarction if they survived long enough.

The second feature noted in the present series was the development of minute foci of necrosis leading to focal fibrosis. These small lesions, usually just visible macroscopically, were encountered in ten of the sixteen cases, often in several sites in one heart. We were able to observe every stage of their development, and they showed exactly the same changes as do ordinary infarcts, but on a minute scale. It appears to us desirable that these lesions should be regarded as minute infarcts, and that the term ischæmic fibrosis should imply this. In most cases these small lesions were found to be related, both in time and site, to occluded coronary branches, but

this was not always so. Minute infarcts without demonstrable vascular occlusion presumably have the same pathogenesis as their larger counterparts.

DISCUSSION

Previous history The high incidence of a history of rheumatic fever in both hypertensive and ischæmic groups is regarded as coincidental for necropsy revealed evidence of rheumatic heart disease in but one case and the known facts deny relationship. Thus, of 542 cases with granular kidney reported by Pitt (1887), 6 per cent had mitral stenosis. Of 403 clinical hypertensives analysed by Boas and Fineberg (1926), 8 per cent had mitral stenosis. Of 1000 hypertensive cases studied by Bechgaard (1946) 1 per cent had clinical evidence of mitral stenosis. Finally, in 122 hypertensive subjects under 50 years of age, Haloven and Salomaa (1947) found a history of rheumatic fever in 6.6 per cent, compared with an incidence of 9.8 per cent in 250 controls. Although figures from the paper by Pitt and by Boas and Fineberg, and also those given by Levine and Fulton (1928) show that about 40 per cent of cases of mitral stenosis have hypertension, it must be remembered that 33 per cent of men aged 40, and 43 per cent of women aged 40, have a blood pressure of 150/100 or above (Master *et al*, 1943). Claims that the rheumatic process may involve the coronary vessels (Plesch, 1947) cannot be denied, but there is no statistical evidence implicating rheumatic fever as an important aetiological or contributory agent in the development of the common form of ischæmic heart disease.

Family history Platt's suggestion that essential hypertension may be a hereditary disease transmitted as a Mendelian dominant with a rate of expression of over 90 per cent (Platt, 1947) cannot be easily dismissed. Thus it may be calculated from Berchgaard's findings in over 1000 hypertensive subjects that the incidence of high blood pressure in the parents was about 75 per cent (Bechgaard, 1946), and the author considered that about 20 per cent of his cases were renal in origin—a group in which the hereditary factor has been shown to play no part.

The hereditary aspect of ischæmic heart disease has been less frequently studied, and has been rarely separated from the hypertensive group. General opinion, however, strongly favours hereditary predisposition.

Age and sex Our figures bear out the well-known difference in sex and age incidence. The ratio of males to females is usually given as about 4:1 in ischæmic heart disease, whereas it is close to 1:1 in essential hypertension. It is also recognized that the preponderance of males in ischæmic

heart disease is proportional to the age of the groups studied. Thus it is overwhelming in those under 40, 8 to 1 in those between 40 and 49, 4 to 1 in those between 50 and 59, 2 to 1 in those between 60 and 69, and the sex ratio is equal in those over 70 (Hedley, 1939, Gordon *et al*, 1939).

Clinical features The steady downhill course of hypertensive heart disease was well illustrated, and contrasted sharply with good temporary recovery in at least one-third of the ischaemic cases. This latter behaviour may be attributable to coronary thrombosis with or without infarction, followed by improvement in the collateral coronary circulation.

More than half the hypertensive group died from non-cardiac causes, chiefly uraemia or cerebral haemorrhage. Only two died suddenly. On the other hand, ten out of fifteen ischaemic cases died abruptly. This confirms the well-known fact that ischaemic hearts are peculiarly liable to develop ventricular fibrillation, but it also demonstrates that hypertensive hearts are not.

Of great interest was the rarity with which cases initially classified as hypertensive later developed angina pectoris or myocardial infarction. The pathological studies provide a ready explanation for this, for they show that the typical hypertensive heart has smooth distended coronary arteries. It is not denied that about 66 per cent of ischaemic cases have a blood pressure over 150/90, (Master *et al*, 1936), or that nearly 50 per cent have a blood pressure at least 160/100 (Riseman and Brown, 1937), but we agree with the latter authors that systolic pressures over 200 are rare. It must be repeatedly pointed out that about half of the population between the ages of 50 and 60 have blood pressures of 150/100 or above (Master *et al*, 1943), and it is therefore misleading to quote similar figures in ischaemic heart disease, which involves particularly this age-group, as evidence that coronary disease is intimately related to hypertension. The difference in the quality of the cardiac impulse in the two groups and in the size of the heart as viewed fluoroscopically, was most impressive.

The pathological findings proved conclusively that the hypertensive electrocardiographic pattern showing left axis deviation with depression of the RS-T segment with or without inversion of the T wave in lead I was not due to coincident coronary disease nor to myocardial fibrosis, but appeared to closely related to the size of the left ventricle. Likewise, auricular fibrillation and bundle-branch-block occurring in hypertensive heart disease could not be ascribed to ischaemic fibrosis. Admittedly, bundle-branch-block was twice as common in ischaemic as in hypertensive heart disease in the

clinical series, occurring in 10 per cent and 20 per cent of the cases respectively.

PATHOLOGICAL FEATURES

The most striking observation in the injected hearts was the basic difference in the coronary pattern between the hypertensive and ischaemic series and the lack of overlap between them. It is probably true that hypertension does predispose to coronary sclerosis, but our findings suggest that the relationship has been overstressed. Confusion may have arisen on account of the frequency at autopsy of enlarged hearts with atheromatous coronary arteries—it being assumed that the hypertrophy indicates previous hypertension and atheromatous coronary arteries indicate ischaemia. Either of these assumptions may be false. Our observations show that in coronary sclerosis cardiac failure can produce myocardial hypertrophy to an average weight of 550 g irrespective of a raised blood pressure. This has been observed by Bartels and Smith (1932) and by Davis and Blumgart (1937), and Eyster (1927, 1928) has suggested that stretching of the heart by dilatation is the essential stimulus to hypertrophy. In spite of this, the assumption is still commonly made that a heart weight of over 500 g indicates hypertension. Another source of error is the assumption that atherosclerosis must cause coronary narrowing. Stewart *et al* (1935) showed that this was not so and our present findings confirm this. It is not suggested that atheroma does not lead to ischaemia but we believe that by ordinary examination it is very difficult to estimate whether or not the vessels are narrowed during life.

Our observation that the coronary arteries enlarge as the heart hypertrophies confirms the previous findings of Gross (1921), Russow (1936), Fishberg (1937) and Sagebiel (1934), but in addition they strongly suggest that the degree of coronary enlargement keeps pace with the needs of the heart and that "relative" ischaemia is not a cause of cardiac failure in hypertension. The concept of relative ischaemia has probably arisen from the finding of myocardial fibrosis unassociated with appreciable coronary sclerosis. Such fibrosis may be of the type which we have called reticular and which we believe to be a form of fibrous tissue hypertrophy and not an indication of muscle destruction. This was also the view of Stadler (1907). Alternatively, there are undoubtedly cases of focal myocardial fibrosis indistinguishable from healed infarcts but unassociated with any coronary occlusion. Such cases have been observed by Blumgart (1940, 1941), Gross and Sternberg (1939), Ravin and Greeves (1946) and by Holyoke (1945), as well as by us. We suggest that it is more reasonable to attribute them to a diminu-

tion of coronary flow during a phase of cardiac failure than to postulate either relatively small coronary arteries or spasm

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Comparative clinical and pathological studies have been made on twenty-seven cases of hypertensive heart disease and fifteen cases of ischæmic heart disease. There were twelve controls.

Hypertensive cases were characterized clinically by even sex distribution, dyspnoea, steady deterioration, retinopathy, cerebral symptoms, impairment of renal function, anemia, auricular fibrillation and by clinical, radiological, and cardiographic evidence of left ventricular enlargement before the onset of heart failure. Only one case originally classified as hypertensive developed subsequent angina pectoris or myocardial infarction. Death was rarely abrupt.

Ischæmic cases were characterized clinically by an unequal sex distribution favouring men, the older age of women, the infrequency of early dyspnoea, the absence of anemia, of retinopathy and of cerebral symptoms, good renal function, normal rhythm, normal heart size before failure, good temporary recovery, and by abrupt death.

At autopsy the hearts were investigated by injection of the coronary arteries followed by stereoscopic radiography and dissection and histological examination. The following conclusions were drawn:

Moderate degrees of coronary atheroma do not necessarily cause narrowing.

The size of the coronary arteries varies directly with the heart weight in both normal and hypertrophied hearts irrespective of the cause of the hypertrophy.

The coronary arteries vary sharply between hypertensive and ischæmic cases: in the former they are large with smooth bores, in the latter they are narrow and frequently occluded.

In hypertensive cases the heart weight varies with the degree of failure during life and not with the height of the blood pressure.

The coronary size increases as the heart size increases and there is no evidence to indicate relative ischæmia of the ventricular muscle.

In severely hypertrophied hearts the normal fibrous tissue increases in thickness.

In ischæmic cases cardiac hypertrophy is the rule and can be correlated with the duration of failure.

Myocardial infarction can occur in the apparent absence of coronary occlusion and is probably then due to circulatory failure.

We are deeply indebted to Dr. Duncan White for his kindness in taking stereoscopic skiagrams in all cases. We also wish to thank Mr. J. Baker and Mr. J. Griffin for the many hundreds of slides they prepared and Mr. V. Willmott for the photographs.

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SINO-AURICULAR BLOCK, INTERFERENCE DISSOCIATION, AND DIFFERENT RECOVERY RATES OF EXCITATION IN THE BUNDLE BRANCHES

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Disturbances in the propagation of the heart beat between the auricle and the two ventricles are of frequent occurrence and well known under the terms A-V dissociation or heart block. The term sino-auricular block is the standard name for an apparent block between the sinus node and the auricle, a hypothetical incident to explain transient auricular standstill for a period of time that is a multiple of the length of the regular sinus cycle. Interference dissociation is commonly associated with a nodal rhythm with retrograde block, the slower sinus excitation and auricular beat being conducted intermittently to the ventricle. Less commonly, interference dissociation is seen in cases of near complete A-V dissociation, with occasional sinus beats being conducted in a favourable time period, a phenomenon usually attributed to the likelihood that junctional tissues have a supernormal phase of excitation and conductivity following their refractory period. Some of the best examples of this phenomenon are the first case of Lewis and Master (1924), the cases of Wolferth (1928), of Luten and Pope (1930), of Pareja (1933), and the first case of Burchell (1942).

Electrocardiographic records obtained recently from a woman, aged 60, exhibited the recurring phenomenon of nodal rhythm with interference dissociation in which the ventricular beat conducted from the auricle showed the presence of either left or right bundle branch block. The unique feature was the fact that the type of bundle branch block exhibited was determined by the time relationship between the P wave that was to be followed by a ventricular response and the preceding R wave of the idioventricular (nodal) beat. The explanation seemed related to either different rates of recovery in conduction in the two bundle branches or a supernormal phase either of conduction in the left bundle

or of excitation in the left ventricle. As there were, in addition, frequent cardiographic sequences showing the picture of sino-auricular block, the possible relationship of this abnormality to the disturbance in A-V and intraventricular conduction invited some speculation.

REPORT OF CASE

A woman, 60 years of age, registered at the clinic with the main complaints of varicose veins, painful feet related to corns, mild shortness of breath, slight substernal discomfort with moderate exertion, and backache. No history was elicited that digitalis or other medicines had been taken. Auscultation of the heart revealed no murmurs. The blood pressure was 140 systolic and 90 diastolic. There were extensive varicosities of the veins of both legs and a stasis ulcer on the lower part of the left leg. The roentgenogram of the thorax showed moderate generalized cardiac enlargement. The roentgenogram of the spinal column showed a dorsal kyphosis and moderate osteo-arthritic changes. The cardiac diagnosis was coronary sclerosis and angina pectoris.

Electrocardiographic study. On the short cardiographic sequences obtained for routine evaluation there was noted an intermittent type of A-V dissociation during which occasional A-V conduction occurred. Only a few such complexes were present and the initial cardiographic diagnosis was probable A-V dissociation with interference dissociation, the occasional conduction being related to a supernormal phase of conduction. The patient returned the following day for more extensive study. For about the first fifteen minutes of electrocardiographic sampling, normal sinus rhythm was present and this was not affected by pressure on either carotid sinus. Then spontaneously a cardiac irregularity appeared

and a continuous record was obtained for approximately three minutes, during which about twenty-five premature beats were noted. The developed records showed phenomena similar to those of the preceding day but the abnormal mechanisms could be more definitely interpreted.

The various disturbances in rhythm and conduction are illustrated in Fig 1 and 2. In Fig 1, there are shown in the four tracings from above downward respectively, first, normal sinus rhythm with slight sinus arrhythmia, the P-P intervals

In Fig 2, the top sequence shows the usual or classic picture of interference dissociation in which the nodal rhythmicity rate is faster than the sinus rate, and a retrograde block is present. The R-R intervals of the nodal rhythm measure 1.68 sec and the P-P intervals of sinus rhythm 1.76 sec, thus the record shows that the P waves gradually appear later and later after the R wave until finally the junctional tissues are found non-refractory and an interference beat occurs, and in the record portrayed there is an associated prolonged P-R interval.

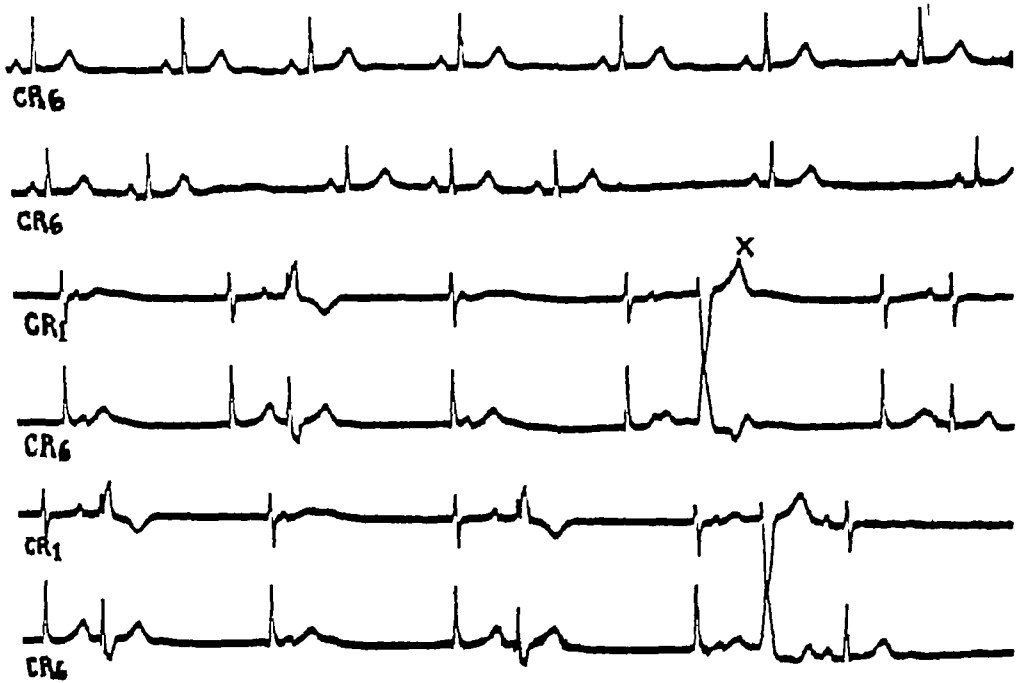


FIG 1—Electrocardiograms discussed in the text. Four sequences are shown. In the lower two pairs of records, simultaneous tracings from two precordial positions are shown, position 1 being in the fourth interspace just to the right of the sternum and position 6 being in the fifth interspace in the left midaxillary line. The indifferent electrode was on the right arm.

varying from 1.24 to 1.56 sec, second, sequences of S-A block, the heart being more rapid and the regular P-P intervals showing only slight variation and averaging 0.96 sec, and third and fourth, nodal rhythm with interference dissociation in the simultaneously taken right and left precordial leads. The third tracing shows three premature ventricular beats, the first having the complex of right bundle branch block, the second that of left branch block, and the third a normal QRS complex. The fourth tracing shows two premature right bundle branch complexes and one left, the latter being interpolated between two normal QRS complexes

and left bundle branch block. In the lower tracing of Fig 2 are shown three premature beats, the first with a left bundle branch block complex, the second with a normal QRS complex, and the third with a right bundle branch block, and then return of normal sinus rhythm. It is to be noted that the premature ventricular beats have a definite time relationship to a preceding P wave and, depending upon the interval between the P wave that is to be followed by conduction and the preceding R wave of the nodal beat, the ventricular complex will show left bundle branch block, right bundle branch block, or a normal QRS complex.

Particular attention needs to be paid to the left bundle branch block complexes in the third tracing in Fig 1 and in the bottom tracing of Fig 2 where the T wave is deformed (marked X) by an apparent P wave of abnormal shape. These P waves occurred commonly after the left bundle branch block complexes but never with the right bundle branch block complexes. While these P waves possibly are indicative of auricular extrasystoles, the constant association with the left bundle branch complexes and the preceding prolonged P-R interval suggest that such P waves represent a re-entry into the auricle, in fact indicating auricular reciprocal beating.

COMMENT

The acceptance of the concept of a sino-auricular block is dependent only on the evidence of sudden

excitation could not be readily measured. The frequent close association of a P wave with the R wave when a supposed nodal rhythm was present might theoretically be related to sino-ventricular conduction and partial sino auricular block. The progressive increase in the R-P times in the sequence shown in Fig 2 could be related to a progressive increase in S-A conduction time. The conducted beat of the interference dissociation sequence, if such premises were accepted, could then represent reciprocal rhythm. While a progressive increase in S-A time or a Wenckebach phenomenon has been claimed, on good evidence (Decherd *et al*, 1946), to occur, it is most unlikely that the phenomenon of sino-ventricular conduction without auricular response would have occurred without many examples of dropped auricular beats having been observed. Orthodox views, however, regarding the

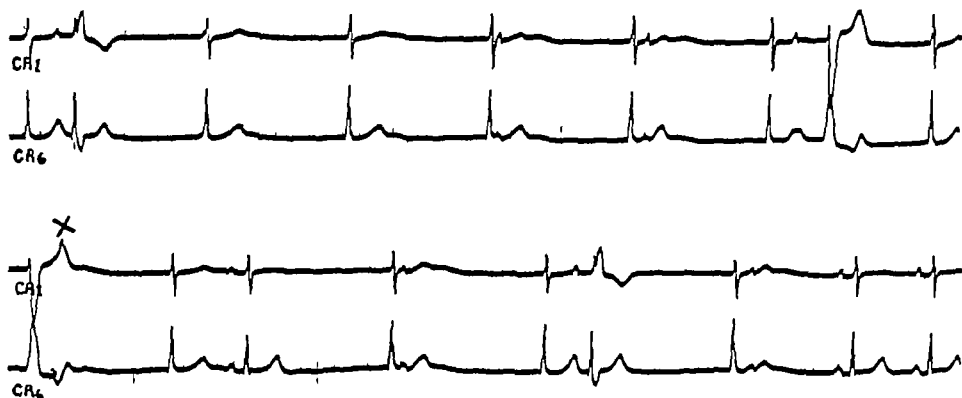


FIG 2 —Electrocardiograms discussed in the text. Two pairs of records with simultaneously recorded precordial potentials are shown.

halving of the auricular rate, and all the objections of Lewis (1925) to the term and its implications still pertain. In the case reported herein, the disturbance in sinus rhythm resulting in marked auricular slowing allowed a lower rhythm centre to drive the ventricle and permitted the development of circumstances that give the picture of interference dissociation. If there were specialized conducting pathways between the sinus node and the A-V node, as Eyster and Meek (1914 and 1922) interpreted their experiments to indicate, and if one were to assume the presence of an entrance block into the auricle, a curious phenomenon of a sino-ventricular beat without an auricular contraction could occur. As Lewis *et al* (1914) incidentally noted in their criticism of Eyster and Meek's investigations, excitation potentials related to sino-auriculo-ventricular nodal conduction without contingent auricular

nature of nodal rhythm with and without retrograde conduction to the auricle would seem to be well agreed upon, and they are explained and illustrated in standard textbooks on electrocardiography. The relatively short intervals in ventriculo-auricular and auriculo-ventricular sequential beats during heart block has probably attracted the attention of many investigators, and the problem was reviewed by Wolferth and McMillan (1929) who emphasized that the auricular elements of the sequences were represented by abnormally shaped and usually inverted P waves. The possible auricular re-entry beats in this case (Fig 1 and 2) associated with conduction defects in the main bundle and left bundle block complexes are particularly interesting in that there was never retrograde conduction to the auricle during the long sequences of nodal rhythm.

The only published electrocardiographic records seen that approach the nature of the tracings in the case reported herein are those shown in Fig 196 of Scherf and Boyd's *Clinical Electrocardiography* (1946). The tracing is interpreted as showing extreme sinus bradycardia through 2:1 sinus block with escaped beats and interference dissociation with the conducted sinus beats showing an aberrant QRS complex owing to abnormal spread within the ventricle. The tracings demonstrating interference

except for one conducted beat where there is impaired bundle branch conduction.

In the present case the number of observations seems sufficient to establish evidence of an absolute pattern of conduction in the main bundle and bundle branches dependent upon the time the P wave came after the R wave of the preceding nodal beat. The switch from left bundle branch block to right bundle branch block occurred at a critical time interval and was associated with a sharp decline in total A-V

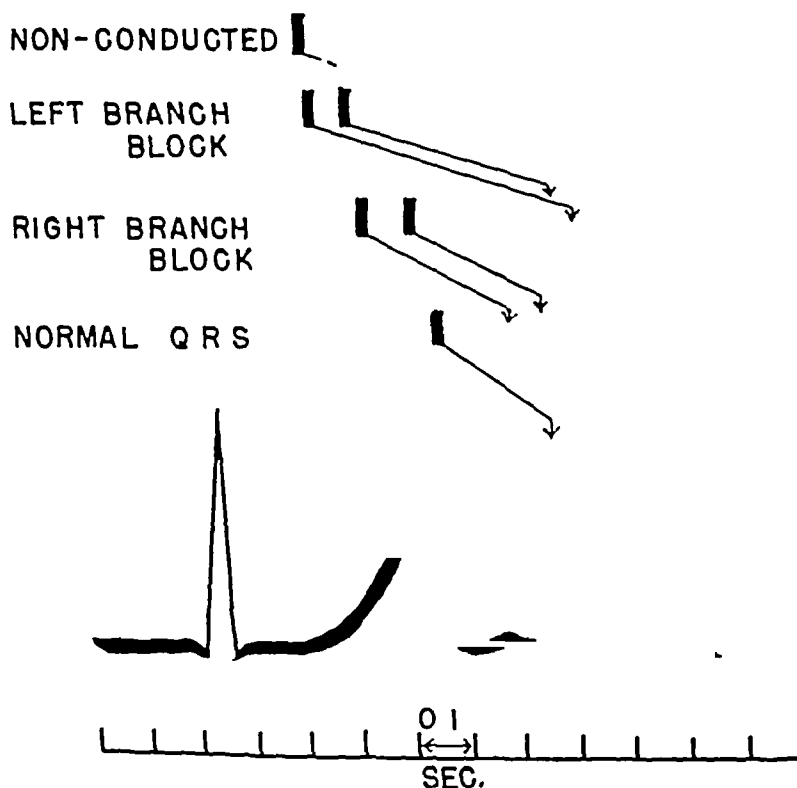


FIG 3—The diagrammatic illustration shows the relationship of P waves, represented by the black rectangles, to the preceding R wave of the nodal beat in respect to whether they are followed by left or right branch block complexes or a normal QRS complex. See text for explanation.

dissociation published by Jervell (1934) show complexes of the bundle branch form, but in these tracings nearly normal QRS complexes may occur with the same R-P and P-R intervals as those in which the intraventricular conduction defect is present.

The case in the paper by Cowan (1939) may have been similar to that of the case reported herein in that the records were said to show "variable sinoauricular block, the auricular rhythm being very irregular and infrequent." One tracing that was reproduced shows complete A-V dissociation

conduction (Fig 3). With the sequences showing left branch block there was a definite tendency for the total A-V conduction time to be shorter as the P wave fell farther away from the preceding nodal complex, but with the right bundle block complexes the total A-V conduction time remained relatively constant (Fig 4).

One of the main difficulties in appraising the nature of the conduction of the interference beat is the lack of knowledge of the exact origin of the nodal beat within the junctional tissues. If such know-

ledge were available the refractoriness of the upper and lower portions of the junctional tissues relative to one another might have been better estimated. The difficulties of interpreting the effects of blocked retrograde impulses on the refractoriness and possible supernormal phases of junctional tissues and myocardium have been emphasized by Langendorf (1948) and Mack *et al* (1947).

One explanation of the phenomenon of the rapid alternation in the type of bundle branch block is illustrated in Fig 5. It is assumed that the nodal beat originated in the upper portion of the junctional tissues so that the main bundle precedes that of the bundle branches in phases of excitation and refractoriness. The earliest P waves followed by conduction are shown to occur in the partially refractory state of the main bundle, and when the excitatory process reaches the bundle branches, the left

bundle branch is completely refractory and the right partially refractory. Left branch block associated with partial right branch block is then present. The term "partial right branch block" is used as an equivalent to the term "partial heart block" when the latter means an abnormal prolongation of the P-R interval.

The diagram (Fig 5) shows rapid recovery in the left branch so that an excitatory process traversing the main bundle at a later period travels more quickly through the left branch than through the right and a right branch block is manifest. A supernormal phase of conduction in the left branch might be added to the basis for the explanation but seems unnecessary. If the diagram as drawn were truly representative of the conditions, there would be a partial left branch block in addition to a manifest right branch block.

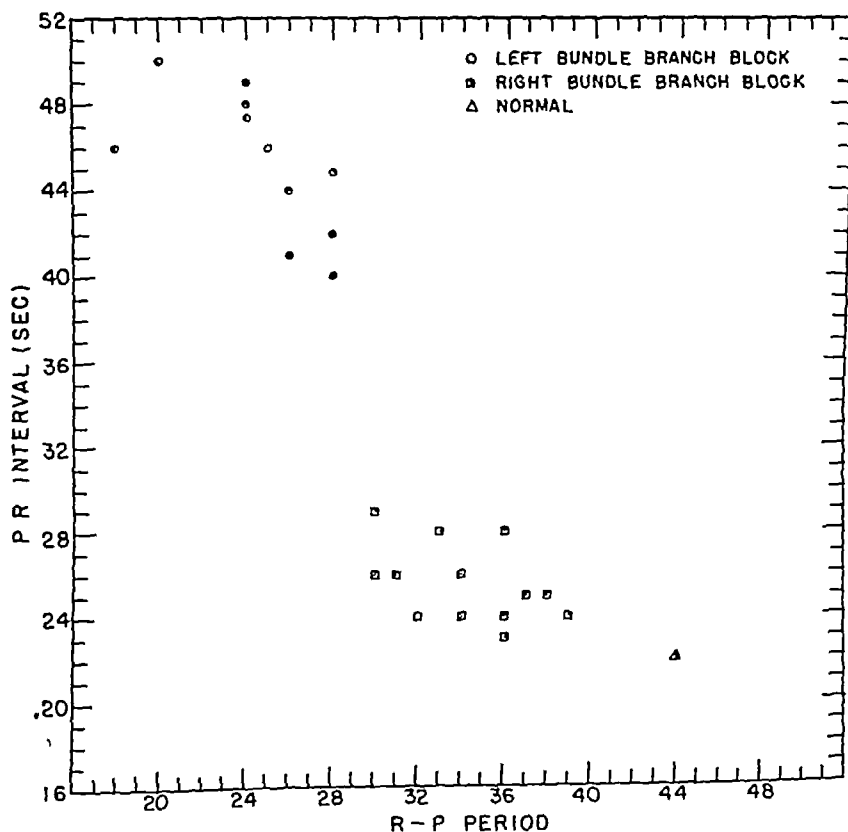


FIG 4—A graph to illustrate the relationship between the R-P period (the time interval between the beginning of the P wave that is to be followed by a ventricular complex and the preceding R wave of the nodal beat) and the P-R interval (the A-V conduction time). The sharp reduction in total A-V conduction when left branch block is replaced by right branch block is clearly shown.

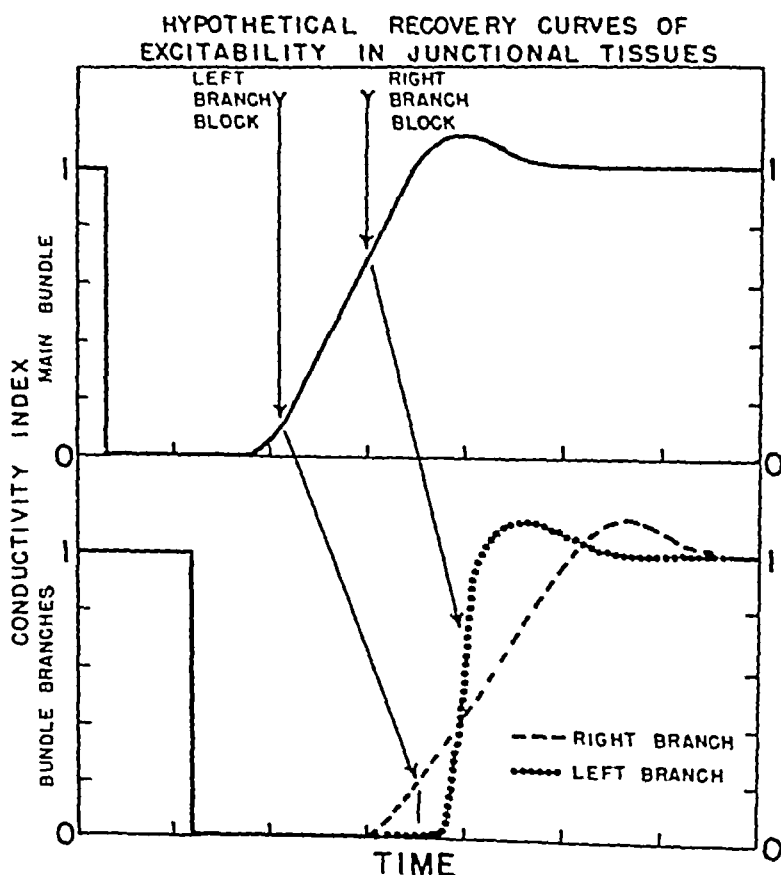


Fig 5—The diagram illustrates hypothetical recovery of excitation curves or periods of total and partial refractoriness, of junctional tissues. The conductivity index represents variations in refractoriness, 0 being total refractoriness and 1 being normal conductivity. The interpretation as applied to the case reported is discussed in the text.

The term "partial branch block" is somewhat confusing because the complete cardiographic record obtained will be dependent upon conduction in both bundle branches. For example, if the left bundle branch is normal, then depressed conduction in the affected right bundle branch gives rise to the picture of various degrees of incomplete right bundle branch block as originally discussed from the experimental and clinical cardiographic viewpoints by Wilson and Herrmann (1920). If both the bundle branches have similarly depressed zones of conductivity, the P-R interval is prolonged and the QRS complex is of normal duration. If there is complete loss of conductivity in one bundle branch, for instance, the left, and depressed conduction in the other, the right, then as happened in the case reported herein, there is an increased P-R interval and complete left branch block.

Excellent illustrations of bilateral branch block have been published by Bain (1941), Case 3 in his article being of particular interest. Incomplete heart block is shown, the usual mechanism being a 2:1 heart block with right branch block, but occasionally two auricular beats are conducted in sequence, the second of which shows a prolonged P-R interval and a left, rather than a right, branch block. It seems reasonable to suppose in Bain's case that retarded conduction was present constantly in the right bundle branch, and when the left bundle branch conducted normally, right bundle branch block was manifest. However, when the left bundle branch was completely blocked, the right bundle branch conducted after a delay, resulting in an increased P-R interval and left branch block.

In the case reported herein it would seem a

justifiable assumption that the depressed zones of conduction in the bundle branches were associated with a pathological state in the upper part of the ventricular septum. Utilizing the conception of unidirectional block related to the orientation of slightly depressed to severely depressed zones in the bundles, as outlined by Herrmann and Ashman (1931), one might explain the observed conduction defects in the following way. The first excitatory processes to be conducted meet a severely depressed area in the right bundle branch which, however, is eventually traversed, while in the left bundle branch there is a slightly depressed zone above a severely depressed area and complete block in the left bundle branch occurs. A tenth of a second or so later, the left bundle branch has recovered, the excitatory process passes quickly through it, and a right bundle block complex appears. In general, it would appear that the right bundle branch conduction defect simulates type 1 A-V block while the left bundle branch conduction defect simulates type 2 A-V block as classified by Mobitz (1928), type 1 being a progressive increase in conduction time culminating in complete block, and type 2 being the sudden appearance of complete block without preceding increase in conduction time.

The possible relationship of the conduction disturbances to the clinical diagnosis of coronary insufficiency may be allowed if it be accepted that the blood supply to the conducting tissues were jeopardized. When normal sinus rhythm was present, there was never any auriculo-ventricular or intraventricular conduction defect. One might presume on a theoretical basis a further phasic decrease in blood supply during ventricular systole

during which period the P wave that was to be followed by the bundle branch block QRS occurred. Such a supposition concerning the effect of systole on the blood supply to an ischaemic zone is the direct opposite to that proposed by Wolferth (1928) in explaining the A-V conduction in his case. If the phenomena observed were the effect of anoxic anoxia, the question of a possible elucidation of the problem from the work of Harris and Matlock (1947) arises. These investigators reported that the threshold of excitability was lowered and conduction rates increased in moderate anoxia while in severe anoxia the reverse effect was obtained. If the results were applicable to junctional tissues, one might explain the phenomenon of the sudden increase in conductivity and perhaps even an increase of excitability in the left ventricle in this case by assuming that a hypoxic environment changed from a severe state to a moderate one.

SUMMARY

A patient having intermittent sino auricular block and interference dissociation was found to have also bundle branch block associated with the majority of the interference beats. The bundle branch block was either right or left, dependent upon the time relationships of the auricular beat to be conducted and the preceding R wave of the nodal (idioventricular) rhythm. The possibility of an intraventricular supernormal phase of recovery in conductivity in the left bundle branch might be utilized in explaining the phenomena, but it is not necessary if different recovery rates in excitation of the two bundle branches are hypothesized.

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ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC STUDIES IN CRETINS

BY

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There is no direct method of estimating accurately the function of the thyroid gland so other measures have to be employed in diagnosing thyroid deficiency and in regulating subsequent treatment. Recognition of typical cases of hypothyroidism should not be difficult, but there are borderline cases with slight symptoms that are not so easy to detect. Standard methods of investigation are helpful but have their limitations particularly in young children. At this early age, for instance, accurate estimation of the basal metabolic rate is difficult and therefore unreliable. The blood cholesterol level is usually raised in hypothyroidism, but the test may fail in early or mild forms of the disorder and other conditions may be associated with a high figure.

In searching for additional means of diagnosis attention has been drawn to certain electrocardiographic changes pointing to a disturbed action of the heart. This method of investigation has been used only to a very limited extent in children and paediatric textbooks contain little or no information on the subject.

ELECTROCARDIOGRAMS IN HYPOTHYROIDISM

In 1918 Zondek described cardiac disturbances in four adults suffering from hypothyroidism and on the basis of his observations introduced the term "myxœdema heart". The main changes he described were cardiac dilatation, a depressed heart action with a slow pulse rate but normal blood pressure, and the absence of the P and T waves in the cardiogram. After thyroid treatment all these abnormalities disappeared. Since then cardiographic investigations of this condition have continued, mostly in myxœdematous adults, but there have also been a few sparse references to children (Cor, 1921, Nobel *et al*, 1924, Thacher, 1924, Doxiades and Pototzky, 1927, Fournier, 1942, and Sharpey Shafer, 1943).

The changes generally reported are a low voltage curve with flat P and flat or negative T waves. Only

two references can be found to alterations in the R-T segments. Chini (1929) reported two myxœdematous children in whom the segment had a convexity, 'a tipo coronarico' similar to Pardee's original description in coronary sclerosis. Ohler and Abramson (1934) found similar changes in 4 of 21 adults with hypothyroidism. Prolongation of the P-R interval has been observed in isolated cases (Luten, 1920; Schittenhelm and Eisler, 1927; Ziskin, 1930; Davis, 1931; and Howard, 1929) and a lengthening of the QRS complex in others (Holzman, 1929).

Arrhythmias associated with myxœdema seem to be extremely rare. Solitary cases of auricular fibrillation and occasional premature contractions have been described (Ohler and Abramson, 1934; Guerrant and Wood, 1938; Willius and Haines, 1925; Walker, 1933, and Austin, 1937). Bradycardia of sinus origin or with complete heart block and the Stokes-Adams syndrome is sometimes encountered (Willius, 1925). Paroxysmal tachycardia is rarer still (Lisser and Anderson, 1931).

There is a general impression that abnormal electrocardiographic changes in myxœdema disappear in the majority of cases after some weeks thyroid treatment. Flattening of the P and T waves has been noticed after thyroidectomy designed to produce artificial myxœdema in the treatment of congestive heart failure and angina pectoris (Davis *et al*, 1934) or when thyroidectomy has been carried out too liberally for Graves disease (Hamburger *et al*, 1929). Animal experiments in support of this have not, however, produced constant results (Burlage, 1922; Coelho, 1931, and Lueg, 1926).

THE CAUSE OF ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC CHANGES IN MYXŒDEMA

Various explanations have been given of the cause of these changes. An extra-cardial factor such as increased skin resistance has been one popular theory, but there is an increasing belief that an

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alteration in the heart and the conductive mechanism as a result of the hypothyroid state is primarily responsible

Cutaneous resistance In order to overcome the possible effect of skin changes in myxœdema, Nobel *et al* (1924) used subcutaneous needle electrodes and found an increase in the height of the P and T waves compared to the tracing obtained with ordinary standard leads. From this they concluded that the skin and not the heart was primarily at fault

Other investigators have not been able to confirm these observations and, furthermore, alteration of skin conductivity could hardly account for the prolonged conduction time and other abnormalities observed. The absence of cardiographic changes in skin diseases with extensive cutaneous thickening such as scleroderma and ichthyosis is also of some significance (Hallock, 1934). This has also been our experience in these disorders, in dermatomyositis, and with the widespread œdema of nephrosis

Sherf and Boyd (1945) using a special electrocardiograph were able to measure the electrical potential directly from the heart. In myxœdema abnormally low potentials were recorded, indicating a lesion of the heart itself

Pericardial effusion Some authorities have attributed the cardiographic changes to a pericardial effusion which may arise in myxœdema. With thyroid treatment the accumulated fluid disappears and the cardiogram becomes normal, which might be advanced as further proof of the argument (Schnitzer and Gutmann, 1946). But on the whole these effusions are not common and we have never observed them in any child suffering from hypothyroidism

Nervous factors A decreased tone of the autonomic nervous system might influence the deflexions, especially of the T wave, but here again it hardly seems likely that this factor alone could produce the various other abnormalities (Hamburger *et al*, 1929, Ohler and Abramson, 1934, v Pfaundler, 1938)

Anæmia Secondary anæmia, nearly always present in myxœdema, has been suggested as another possibility (Tung, 1931), but no comparable cardiographic changes have been found in other forms of anæmia of a similar degree of severity

Myocardial disturbance In advanced hypothyroidism there may be a reduced cardiac output and enlargement of the heart, which might well modify the shape of the T wave (Means, 1925, Sherf and Boyd, 1945), but similar cardiographic changes have been found in the early stages without

any obvious cardiac failure (Ohler and Abramson, 1934). Myxœdematous swelling of the muscle fibres and connective tissue of the myocardium is the principal post-mortem change discovered, and it is this no doubt that produces the main effect on the cardiogram (Ord, 1880, Schultz, 1921, Ohler and Abramson, 1934, Misske, 1936, LaDue, 1943)*

Arteriosclerosis of the heart is quite common in adult myxœdema and could partly account for the cardiac disturbance (Fishberg, 1924, Christian, 1925, and Feldman, 1936). Coronary disease may thus be responsible for persistent alterations in the R-T segment or T wave deflexions occasionally remaining despite treatment (Ohler and Abramson, 1934, and Fournier, 1942)

PRESENT INVESTIGATIONS

The present investigation was carried out to ascertain whether electrocardiography can be of any diagnostic assistance in hypothyroidism in infants and young children, particularly when clinical evidence is doubtful. In the course of these studies we were able to place increasing reliance on the abnormal type of tracing discovered, to watch the cardiogram revert to normal under treatment, and ultimately to use it as a control of the optimum amount of thyroid required. Our studies were made on 24 cases, 6 boys and 18 girls, in whom either cretinism or myxœdema had been diagnosed, depending on the age of onset. Both are encountered in childhood, the one dating from birth but only becoming evident round about the third month, and the other appearing later in a previously healthy child. Myxœdema is relatively less common than cretinism, both were found to produce the same cardiographic picture

The cases fall into two groups—10 in whom a cardiogram was taken before thyroid treatment was begun and 14 who were already under treatment before this examination was made

Details of the 10 untreated cases in the first group are summarized in Table I. Seven of them were under the age of one year when first examined. In their appearance all 10 showed typical signs of hypothyroidism with a protruding tongue, dry skin, thickened subcutaneous tissues, an umbilical hernia, hoarse cry, slow snaky movements, and constipation. A delayed bone age was found when radiological examination was carried out

The electrocardiogram was abnormal in all cases, the most constant finding being a low voltage curve. In addition, changes in the R-T segment were noticed in 8 cases which we came to regard as characteristic. These changes appeared either as a

* See also Report of the Committee of the Clinical Society of London (1888) and for animal experiments (Goldberg, 1927)

TEN CRETINS ELECTROCARDIOGRAMS TAKEN BEFORE TREATMENT WAS STARTED

Blood cholesterol was estimated in 8 cases before treatment was begun and was found to be above 200 mg per 100 ml in 5 and below this level in 3 cases.

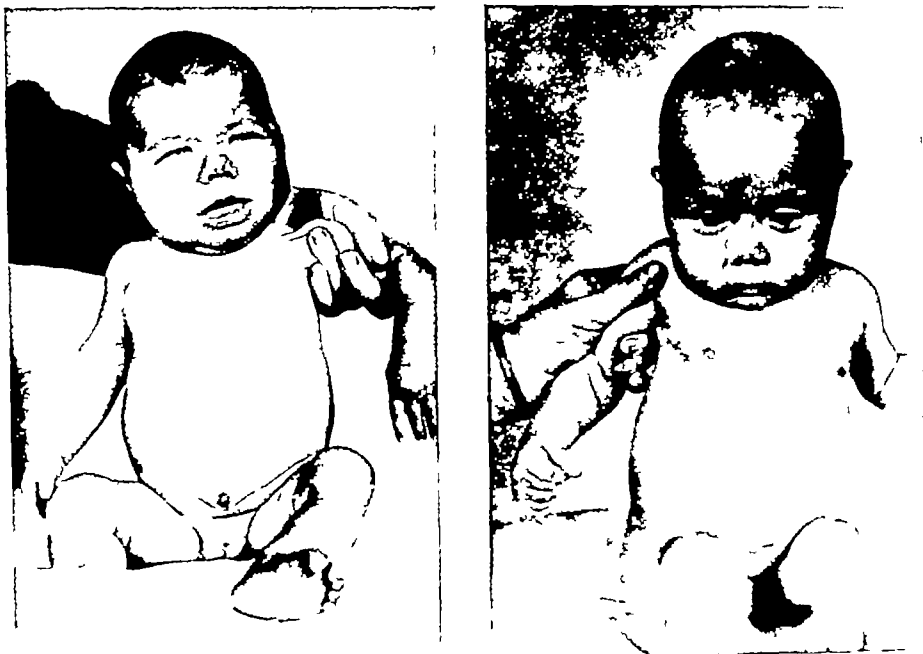


FIG 1.—Appearance of the child (Case 3) before and after treatment with thyroid (0.75 grains a day) for two months



FIG 2.—Appearance of the child (Case 8) before and after treatment with thyroid for three months
The dose was gradually increased to 1 grain a day

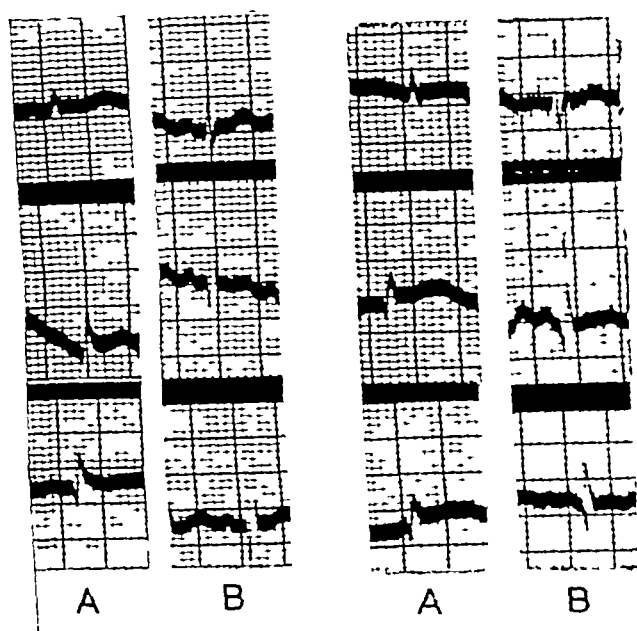


FIG 3

FIG 4

FIG 3—Electrocardiograms of Case 3, aged 6 months Standard leads (A) 17/8/48 Before treatment Low voltage curve and alterations in the S-T segments (B) 7/9/48 Three weeks after treatment with thyroid (0.75 grain a day) Normal tracing

FIG 4—Electrocardiograms (standard leads) from Case 8, aged 2 years (A) 14/6/48 Before treatment Shows the characteristic changes in cretinism (B) 17/7/48 After treatment with thyroid for one month (dose gradually increased to 1 grain a day) Normal tracing

FIG 5—Tracings illustrating insufficient thyroid dosage Standard leads from Case 15, aged 10 years (A) 19/2/47 Normal electrocardiogram after treatment with thyroid (3 grains a day) (B) 2/12/47 Changes appearing after decreasing thyroid to 2.5 grains daily for nine months (C) 20/4/48 Electrocardiogram has again become normal after increase of thyroid to 3.5 grains a day for two months

FIG 5

Data concerning 14 cretins in the second group are summarized in Table II. When first seen they all had the characteristic clinical appearance, but treatment had been started before the first cardiogram was taken and in 13 obvious signs of hypothyroidism had disappeared. The cardiogram was normal in 9 cases and in Case 12 the only change, a right axis deviation, was related to a congenital malformation of the heart which was a complicating factor.

INSUFFICIENT DOSAGE OF THYROID

An abnormal curve was recorded at one period of our study in 4 children of this group (Cases 11, 15, 18, and 22) and in each instance this was found to be related to inadequate dosage of thyroid.

In Case 11 treatment was begun without delay but in inappropriate amounts, 0.1 grain daily for a month, subsequently reduced to 0.1 grain a week. At the age of 7 months when the child first came

under our care she still had a cretinous appearance and the cardiogram showed the typical abnormalities already described. The blood cholesterol level, however, was not raised. Thyroid was then increased to 1.5 grains a day and the cardiogram became normal.

Case 15 was first seen at the age of 17 months, having been on a dose of 3 grains of thyroid a day for 3 months. A cardiogram taken at that time was normal. During the following years her hospital attendance was irregular and thyroid was reduced to 2.5 grains a day. We next saw her at the age of 10 years, normal in appearance, and we only realized that her thyroid level was sub-optimum when cardiograms in succession began to reveal a low voltage curve and changes in the R-T segments. The dose of thyroid was increased to 3.5 grains a day, whereupon the cardiogram again became normal (see Fig 5A-C).

Case 18 had no obvious clinical symptoms beyond

TABLE II
FOURTEEN CRETINS ELECTROCARDIOGRAMS TAKEN AFTER TREATMENT WAS STARTED

Case No and sex	Present age yrs mths		Thyroid therapy			Electrocardiogram	Blood cholesterol (mg per 100 ml)	
			Begun at yrs mths	Further Therapy				
				Date	Daily dose (grams)			
11 F	—	7	—	3	1/6/47 11/9/47 10/5/48	0.4 1.5 2.0	Low voltage inverted P III Low voltage inverted P III Normal	132 140
12 F	1	6	—	6	15/4/48 29/7/48	0.5 1.0	Right axis deviation, extra systoles Normal rhythm	165
13 F	1	—	—	4	3/7/48	0.25	Normal	181
14 M	1	—	—	8	20/1/47	1.0	Normal	169
15 F	10	6	1	2	15/3/38 19/2/47 2/12/47 9/3/48 20/4/48	3.0 2.5 2.5 3.5 3.5	Normal, left axis deviation Inverted P III, left axis deviation Low voltage, R-T II abnormal Normal left axis deviation Normal, left axis deviation	140
16 F	2	—	—	8	5/1/48	1.5	Normal	206
17 F	2	—	1	3	8/6/48	1.5	Normal	199
18 F	3	—	—	3	15/6/48 27/7/48	1.0 2.0	Low voltage, S-T II and S-T III abnormal Normal	220 161
19 F	4	—	—	4	1/7/47	1.0	Normal	167
20 M	4	2	2	4	2/7/48	1.0	Normal	
21 F	5	3	—	9	3/6/47	2.0	Normal	196
22 F	6	3	2	—	24/5/48 28/6/48	2.0 2.0	Low voltage Normal	460 120
23 F	8	4	—	7	16/7/48	1.5	Normal	
24 F	11	2	1	5	15/9/47	1.5	Normal	

Only Cases 11 and 12 still showed a slight appearance of cretinism. Case 12 also had evidence of a congenital malformation of the heart. In Case 22 thyroid treatment had been omitted for one month when first investigated.

a slightly increased cholesterol level. Here again electrocardiography betrayed a subthyroid state and after 5 weeks increased dosage abnormalities in the cardiogram and blood cholesterol figure disappeared.

A similar sequence of events occurred in Case 22. Thyroid which was taken in adequate doses for four years had been omitted for one month. The cardiogram then taken showed a low voltage curve. The blood cholesterol was among the

highest observed (460 mg per 100 ml) and yet there were no marked clinical features. The tracing as well as the cholesterol level became normal one month after resuming thyroid treatment at the same dosage.

Case 10 in the first group should also be included as a further example of inadequate therapy regulated by electrocardiographic control (see Fig. 6A-D).

Fuller details of these five cases will be found in Tables I and II.

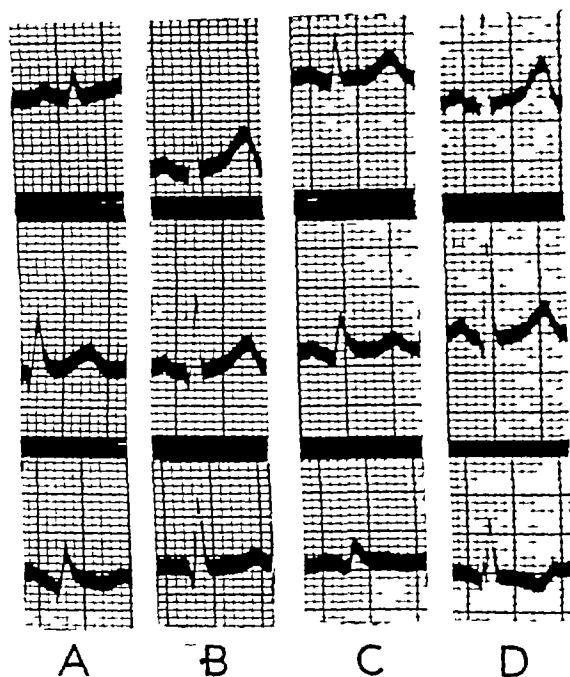


FIG 6—Tracings illustrating insufficient thyroid dosage
Standard leads from Case 10, aged 8 years
(A) 18/3/47 Characteristic changes before treatment was started
(B) 8/4/47 Normal tracing after thyroid, 1 grain a day for three weeks
(C) 7/11/47 Seven months later Thyroid dosage still 1 grain a day The original changes have reappeared
(D) 13/4/48 The thyroid dosage has gradually been increased to 2.5 grains a day for five months, and the curve is normal again

ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

The main data are summarized in Table III

Heart rate The average heart rate of the 10 untreated cretins was 107 a minute the lowest figure being 91 a minute (Case 6) In fact no marked bradycardia was observed but during the course of treatment the heart rate increased somewhat in all these cases The greatest fluctuation occurred in Case 8 where the rate rose from 100 to 140 a minute after one month's thyroid administration In the cretins under treatment the mean heart rate was 121 a minute a figure in the upper limit of normal for this age

Sinus arrhythmia The degree of sinus arrhythmia was estimated by the method of Schlomka and Reindell (1936) and was found to be diminished in untreated cretins in fact the heart beat in this condition, although slower in rate was found to have the regularity of a 'fœtal rhythm'

As a rule sinus arrhythmia become more evident during treatment and in the children who had been taking thyroid for some time before they came under observation it was within normal limits

Voltage deflexions Care was taken to standardize the string tension correctly (1 mv/1 cm) before each tracing was taken and between each lead The mean values of the various elements are shown in Table III and it is obvious that QRS and T deflexions are considerably smaller in untreated cretins than in healthy children A negative T wave in lead III was seen in 8 cases, but by itself we do not regard this as abnormal and Hafkesbrink *et al* (1937) found it present in 40 per cent of healthy children

TABLE III
LOW VOLTAGE ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHY DEFLEXIONS IN TWENTY-FOUR CRETINS

	Standard leads	No of cases	Average age (years)	Heart rate	P mv	Q mv	R mv	S mv	T mv
Group I	Before treatment I	10	$2\frac{1}{12}$	107	0.04	0.05	0.34	0.13	0.14
	II				0.10	0.12	0.58	0.03	0.17
	III				0.05	0.15	0.44	0.01	0.05
	After treatment I	8	$3\frac{5}{12}$	132	0.11	0.04	1.01	0.23	0.30
	II				0.15	0.13	1.10	0.16	0.31
	III				0.04	0.32	0.65	0.16	0.04
Group II	After treatment I	14	$2\frac{6}{12}$	121	0.10	0.04	0.79	0.31	0.28
	II				0.14	0.07	0.82	0.10	0.27
	III				0.06	0.19	0.57	0.10	0.02

Normal figures for comparison

Average height of R (standard leads), normal infants 0.7, 0.9 and 0.7 mv, children of 3 years 1.2, 1.5 and 0.8 mv
Normal height of T I and T II, in infants 0.29 and 0.34 mv, in younger children 0.37 and 0.35 mv
(Nadrai, 1938, and Mannheim, 1940)

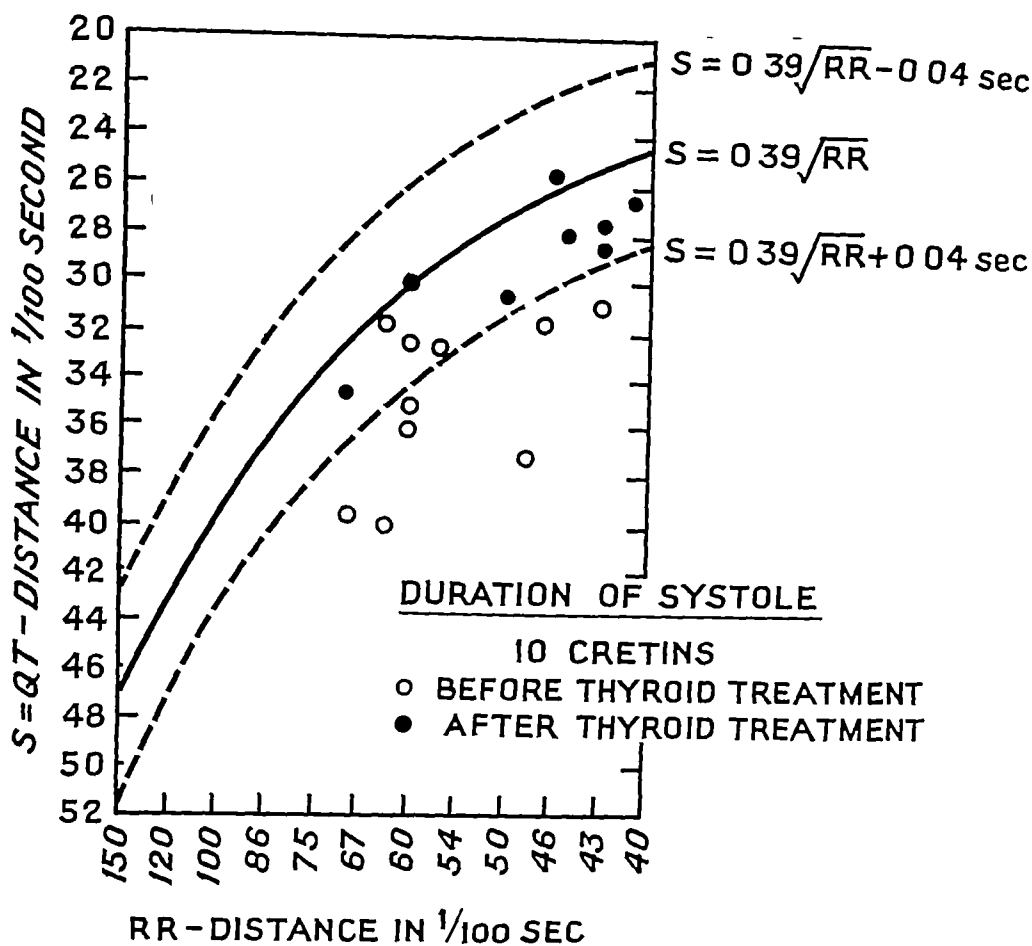


FIG 7—The duration of systole in 10 cretins before and after thyroid treatment. It was increased in most of the untreated cretins and became normal after thyroid therapy.

— Mean values in normal subjects
- - - Normal range of variation

During the course of treatment the low voltage curves disappeared and QRS and T resumed their normal shape and height fairly rapidly. This is also true of the P waves, particularly in lead I, although it should be realized that wide variations exist in normal children (Burnett and Taylor, 1936). The Q waves in lead III also tended to increase when thyroid was administered, but this was not seen in the first two leads.

In addition, left axis deviation appeared for a time in 5 cases. In fact it can become permanent and in one girl who has been under our care since infancy on regular and adequate thyroid therapy, left axis deviation is still present at the age of 17 years although clinically and radiologically the

heart appears normal and there is no evidence of left ventricular hypertrophy.

P-Q and Q-T intervals The P-Q interval usually decreased slightly during treatment, the greatest change being from 0.16 to 0.12 sec (Case 9). The mean values of the P-Q interval did not, however, show any obvious difference in the various groups included in Table III.

The duration of systole was calculated according to a formula suggested by Hegglin and Holzmann (1937). These authors have shown that normal values of the duration of systole (length of Q-T) plotted against the corresponding frequency of ventricular contractions (RR interval) will lie in an area on a graph limited by two lines and expressed

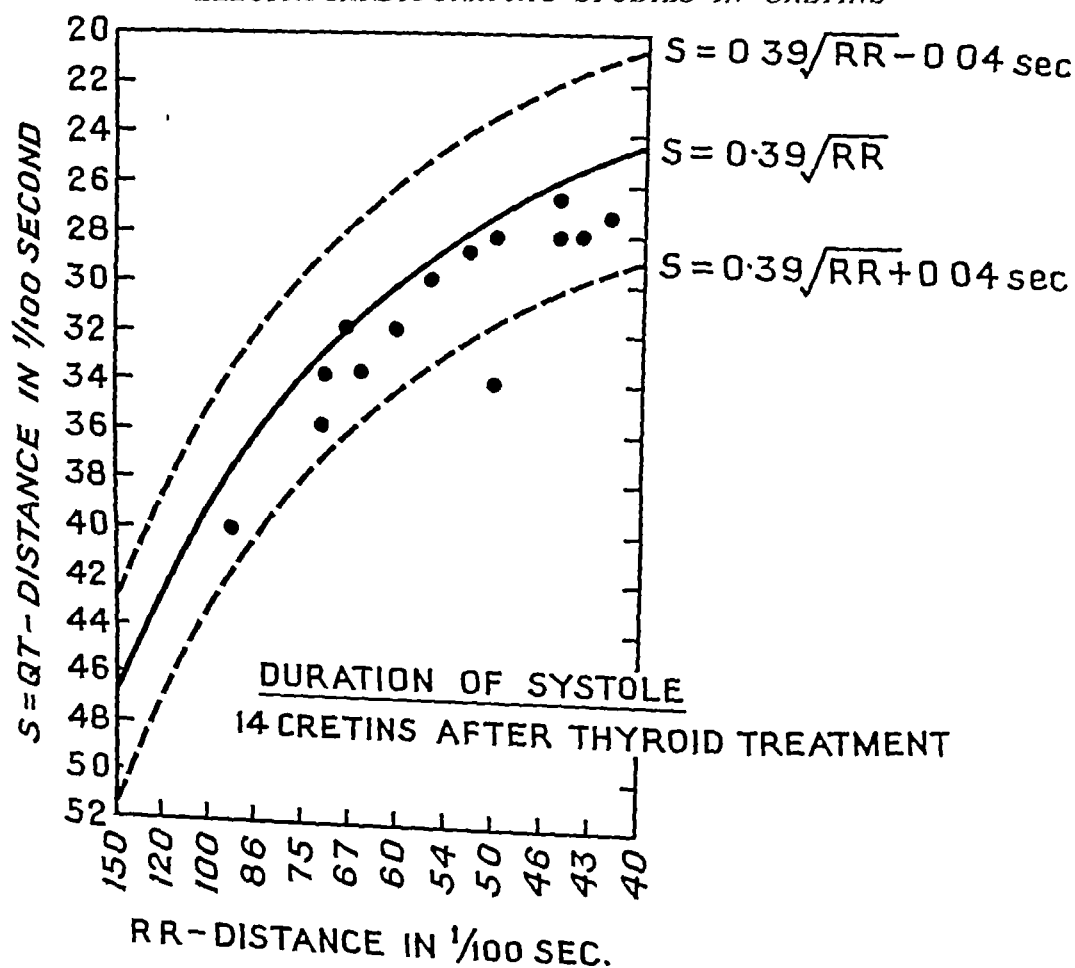


Fig 8—The duration of systole in 14 cretins after thyroid treatment. The figure shows that it was normal in all except one case of those cretins who had been treated with thyroid before the electrocardiogram was taken.

— Mean values in normal subjects
 --- Normal range of variation

as a mathematical formula, $0.39 \sqrt{\text{cycle}} \pm 0.04 \text{ sec}$. Using this method the length of systole has been plotted on a graph in the case of 10 cretins before and after treatment (Fig 7).

The duration of systole was clearly prolonged in 7 cases before treatment and came within normal limits after thyroid had been given. A corresponding calculation was made in the 14 children who had already received treatment before cardiographic records were taken (Fig 8). The duration of systole here was prolonged in only one instance.

DOUBTFUL CASES OF CRETINISM

Occasionally cases arise in which an infant's appearance suggests cretinism but the absence of a completely characteristic clinical picture raises

doubt in the diagnosis. In such circumstances we have found the cardiograph a great help.

Two cases can be quoted. An infant was brought to us with a large tongue protruding since birth and an umbilical hernia, but with no other clinical evidence of hypothyroidism. A tentative diagnosis of cretinism had been made which was rather shaken when the blood cholesterol was found to be normal (115 mg per 100 ml) and X-ray examination showed a normal bone age. A normal cardiogram was the deciding factor, a diagnosis of simple macroglossia was made, no thyroid administered and the child subsequently developed normally with a tongue reduced to the right size.

Another child was originally admitted to the hospital for seborrhœic eczema and gastro-enteritis

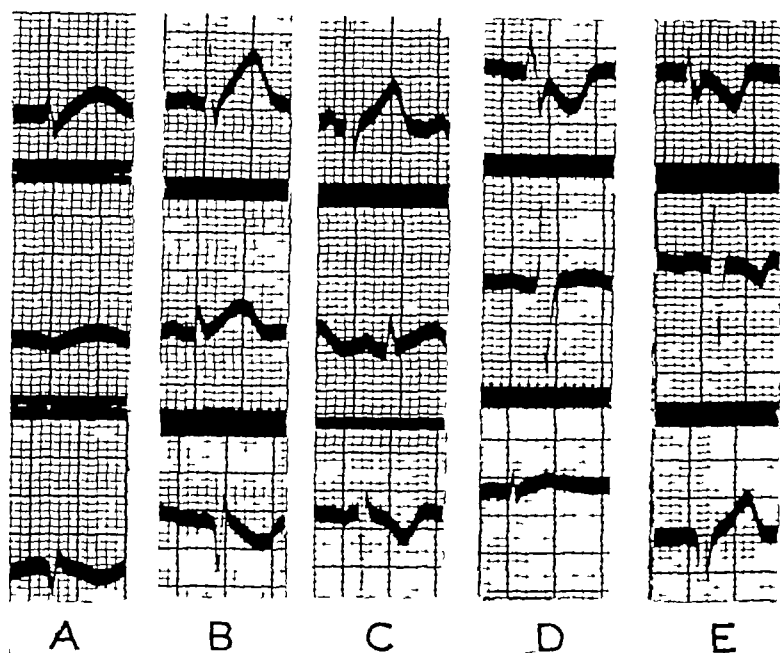


FIG 9—Electrocardiograms from Case 9, aged 6 years (A) 22/7/48 Standard leads taken before treatment show the characteristic changes of cretinism (B) 24/8/48 One month after treatment with thyroid (1 grain a day) Voltage increased, abnormalities in R-T segments disappearing. (C) 21/9/48 One month later, dosage of thyroid has been increased to 2 grains a day Left axis deviation, otherwise almost normal tracing (D) 30/7/48 Three unipolar chest leads taken one week after beginning of the treatment with thyroid (1 grain a day) Abnormal S-T segments in V 1, flat upright T in V 2 and low voltage curve in V 5 (E) 21/9/48 Three unipolar chest leads after two months treatment with thyroid (dosage gradually increased to 2 grains a day) S-T segment deviations in V 1 less marked, inverted T wave in V 2 and voltage increased in V 5

The general appearance at that time also suggested a slight degree of hypothyroidism, a diagnosis also favoured by an increased blood cholesterol level. Thyroid therapy was given for four months, but when two early cardiograms in succession were found to be quite normal, treatment was stopped with no detrimental effect on the child's subsequent healthy development.

DISCUSSION

These studies have shown that characteristic changes in the electrocardiogram occur in untreated cretins which are reversible in a comparatively short time on thyroid administration. If the dosage is interrupted or becomes inadequate cardiographic abnormalities reappear. Alterations in cutaneous resistance are probably partly responsible for the cardiographic changes because the voltage of the deflexions is considerably increased by the use of

subcutaneous leads, a phenomenon we have also observed in normal subjects. Such myxœdematous skin infiltration can, however, only play a minor part. Changes in the R-T segment, which are also present in unipolar chest leads, and prolongation of systole could not be explained on this basis (see Fig 9A-E).

Pericardial effusion, occurring at times in adult myxœdema, has not been encountered by us in cretins, and arteriosclerosis of the coronary vessels has not had time to develop at this age and cannot therefore be responsible for the R-T changes. Anæmia is also not a contributory factor, it is never profound and more than once the cardiogram was observed to return to normal during treatment without any corresponding improvement of the blood count. Nervous factors may have some effect on the cardiac action in cretins and the low degree of sinus arrhythmia present may be partly

an indication of this (Landtman, 1947), but from all the evidence direct involvement of the myocardium seems to be the most likely cause of the main cardiographic changes. Myxoedematous infiltration causes the heart muscle to swell and is likely to interfere with its action. Thyroid treatment rapidly restores the heart to normal and in this way the pathology is somewhat reminiscent of the heart in beriberi which quite rapidly becomes normal when appropriate treatment is given without delay (Weiss and Wilkins, 1937).

SUMMARY

Studies of the electrocardiogram were carried out on 24 infants or young children with hypothyroidism

and the changes found are described. Evidence is brought forward of the value of this method of investigation in regulating the dosage of thyroid required and in the diagnosis of doubtful cases. The possible cause of these changes is discussed and evidence is produced pointing to direct myocardial involvement.

We are grateful to a number of our colleagues for placing their cases at our disposal and to Mr Derek Martin and Mr A. H. Prickett for their patient cooperation and technical assistance.

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THE EFFECTS OF THIOCYANATE ON BASAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL BLOOD PRESSURES

BY

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Despite the many conflicting reports published regarding the effect of thiocyanate on high blood pressure it has been shown (Alstad, 1948) that there were indications that in certain patients high blood pressure may be reduced by such treatment. Allusion was made to the impression that the fall was due to a reduction in both the basal and the supplemental pressure, taking basal to mean the pressure recorded after the removal of certain stimuli both intrinsic and extrinsic, and supplemental to refer to the part of the casual blood pressure that reflects the physical, emotional, and metabolic activity of the patient at the time (Alam *et al.*, 1943).

Thirty-two patients, selected because of a certain degree of hypertension, were investigated and were treated with potassium thiocyanate in doses varying from 0.3 to 0.9 g daily, most of them for over nine months. The average age of the group was 56 years, twenty being over 50 years, and eight over 60 years of age. Females predominated over males, the ratio being 21 of the former to 11 of the latter. No patient was rejected because of complications of hypertension such as encephalopathy, angina pectoris, or previous cardiac failure. The casual pressures were recorded in a separate examination room after the patient had been recumbent for a few minutes, basal blood pressures were taken in hospital after a night's rest assured by hypnotics, as described by Kilpatrick (1948). During treatment blood was removed weekly for serum thiocyanate estimation until a desired level was obtained, thereafter the estimations were carried out at longer intervals.

The dose of a therapeutic agent varies from patient to patient and in such an investigation as this the drug must be used in an effective amount, hence the difficulty of determining a control series exactly comparable. To overcome this it was decided to attempt to control the patients against themselves, achieving this by replacing the drug

with a placebo similar in appearance and in taste but containing no thiocyanate. This was done only after a significant fall in blood pressure had occurred or after the patient had been treated for at least three months, that is at a time when such a fall might have been expected. Care was taken to continue the routine of examination and blood sampling in a manner exactly comparable to that adopted when thiocyanate was being given. It was possible to arrange this control in 27 patients, the remaining 5 being omitted because of discontinuance of treatment due to change of location or of some complication of therapy. The results are shown in Table I.

BASAL BLOOD PRESSURE REDUCTION

The basal blood pressure being recorded under conditions calculated to remove the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic stimuli, is probably a very reliable measure of the minimum pressure to which the cardiovascular system is subjected. It indicates the level to which the casual pressure may fall and is the guide to the fixity or lability of the hypertension according as the difference between it and the casual pressure is small or great. In the 32 patients examined an interesting relationship exists between the basal and casual pressures as shown in Fig. 1. Those patients with high casual pressure tend to have associated high basal pressure, indicating that an increase in the basal pressure is responsible, in part at least, for the high casual pressure in hypertensives.

Reduction of the basal blood pressure in any way, if produced by simple methods, would be of considerable importance to hypertensive patients. It is known that this may be effected by sympathectomy though not necessarily permanently. That a reduction may be produced in some cases by thiocyanate is seen from the fact that in 20 patients or 62 per cent, a fall in basal pressure of greater

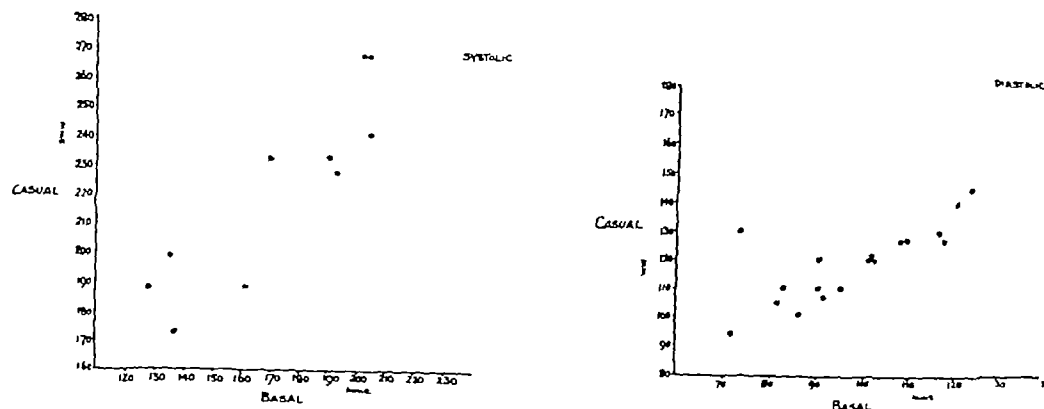


Fig 1—Relationship of initial basal pressure to initial casual pressure

TABLE I

REDUCTION OF BLOOD PRESSURE IN THIRTY-TWO PATIENTS TREATED WITH POTASSIUM THIOCYANATE AND WITH A PLACEBO

Case No	Initial pressure			Reduction with treatment			Reduction with placebo		
	Casual (CI)	Basal (BI)	Supple- mental (SI)	Casual (CI-CT)	Basal (BI-BT)	Supple- mental (SI-ST)	Casual (CI-CP)	Basal (BI-BP)	Supple- mental (SI-SP)
1	190/110	128/84	62/26	65/30	40/32	25/0	20/0	+6/0	26/0
2	215/135	170/116	45/19	47/22	30/16	15/11	15/15	12/4	3/11
3	184/104	132/82	52/22	64/24	36/18	28/6	34/4	18/8	16/+4
4	232/128	170/106	62/22	52/20	24/10	28/20	32/16	+4/+10	36/22
5	228/132	170/108	58/24	60/32	38/30	12/2	18/12	12/4	6/8
6	230/120	172/102	58/18	40/20	30/18	10/2	10/10	+4/+4	14/14
7	180/110	142/94	38/16	40/22	20/20	20/2	30/16	6/6	24/10
8	240/124	210/112	30/12	65/24	28/12	30/12	18/4	0/+6	28/10
9	188/108	160/90	28/18	44/20	30/16	14/4	18/0	4/+2	14/2
10	213/130	142/74	71/56	63/40	22/14	41/26	43/40	8/2	35/38
11	210/140	176/122	34/18	40/30	28/10	12/18	10/10	+4/+6	14/16
12	225/163	183/131	42/32	35/33	47/39	0/0	14/19	4/0	8/17
13	254/140	204/120	50/20	44/30	18/18	26/12	22/10	+6/0	28/10
14	235/140	190/120	45/20	45/20	44/18	1/2	5/8	6/0	+1/8
15	230/130	168/120	62/10	70/40	36/30	34/10	36/10	14/0	12/10
16	241/137	163/85	78/52	42/37	41/13	1/24	7/15	5/+5	2/20
17	170/131	137/100	33/31	41/43	15/12	26/31	20/36	+3/6	23/30
18	185/110	141/92	44/18	41/20	25/10	16/0	20/0	1/6	19/+6
19	193/128	153/114	40/14	33/18	17/12	16/6	13/10	+3/+2	16/12
20	185/120	145/102	40/18	35/20	15/12	20/8	15/10	4/2	11/8
21	211/123	163/102	48/21	30/23	11/2	20/22	0/4	2/0	0/1
22	200/95	136/73	64/22	32/20	0/7	36/14	20/4	0/7	25/0
23	200/120	136/90	64/30	40/20	0/0	40/20	30/10	+4/+4	34/14
24	239/125	171/107	68/18	29/22	17/5	12/10	9/12	3/3	8/8
25	275/146	186/114	89/32	35/10	14/12	12/8	9/6	0/0	8/8
26	220/120	192/106	28/14	30/10	18/2	12/14	10/0	2/0	8/2
27	231/130	193/115	38/15	20/10	0/0	23/14	10/10	0/2	13/8
28	242/121	227/125	15/0	21/9	0/3	0/0	—	—	—
29	209/120	185/115	24/5	20/10	8/0	2/6	—	—	—
30	234/117	189/104	45/13	24/16	16/5	18/0	—	—	—
31	263/145	217/127	46/18	30/15	13/23	14/0	—	—	—
32	265/161	199/140	66/21	9/10	14/12	0/0	—	—	—

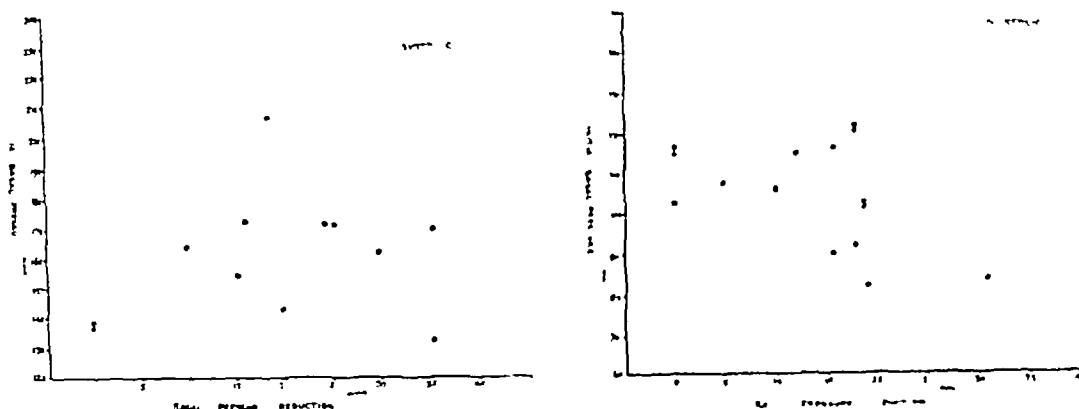


FIG 2—Relationship of basal pressure reduction to initial basal pressure

than 15/10 mm was produced. In 12 of these the reduction was greater than 25/15 mm. Falls in basal pressure less than 15/10 mm were disregarded, for although work in this department has shown the basal blood pressure to be a physiological constant in normal individuals and in hypertensives to be much less variable than the casual pressure it was felt that variations less than 15/10 mm might come within the possible range of hypertensive fluctuation. The average fall was 25.8/15.7 mm in the 20 cases mentioned while in the remaining 12 the average fall was 10/6 mm. If the fall in basal pressure is correlated with the initial basal blood pressure as in Fig 2 there is an indication that the greater reductions tend to occur in patients with lower and moderate basal pressures. This tendency might be expected for one would anticipate high basal pressures in those with fixed hypertension and with more advanced pathological changes, and this is what obtained in this series as will be shown in another section.

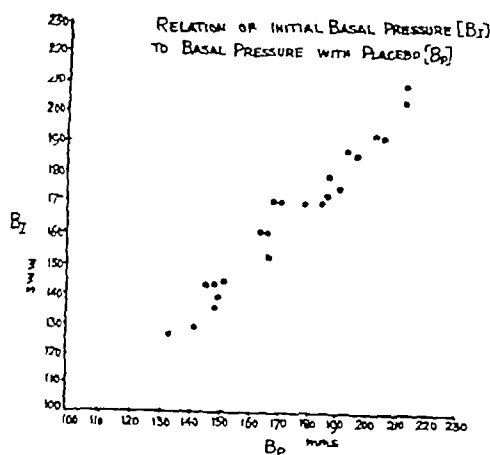
With the use of a placebo the results were uniform no matter the extent of the reduction, the basal recordings with a placebo were similar to those before treatment commenced (cf Fig 3A). That the lowered basal pressure during treatment returned to within a few millimetres of its former level is taken to mean that the drug alone must account for the reduction, else with a placebo the pressure would not have returned consistently to the previous level. Had the basal pressure under the influence of a placebo not come back to the initial level (as will be seen occurred with the supplemental pressure) influences other than thiocyanate might have been responsible for the fall. There were three instances in which the reduction of basal blood pressure was maintained or returned very slowly to former levels even after thiocyanate was withdrawn

completely for periods of up to three months during which no other treatment was given. Apart from the possibility of the initial readings not being truly basal a simple explanation seems to be that the effect of thiocyanate in these cases greatly outlasted its presence in the blood. This prolonged effect has been noted by other investigators (Kurtz *et al*, 1941, Fischman 1948). Thiocyanate appears to act by altering some internal mechanism, an action usually operative during its administration only but which is sometimes protracted.

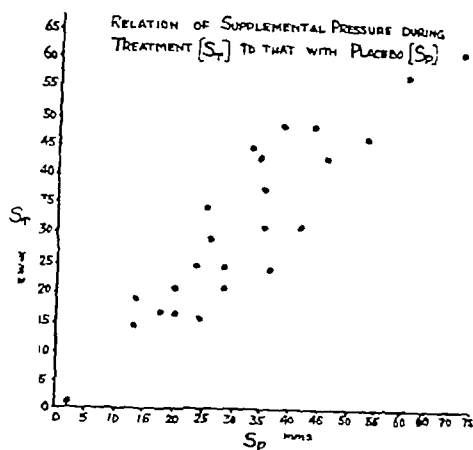
SUPPLEMENTAL BLOOD PRESSURE

The supplemental blood pressure may be regarded as an index of the effect of various extrinsic stimuli acting on the patient at the time of recording. This part of the casual pressure has been shown by Smirk (1944) to be a variable independent of the basal pressure and accountable in the hypertensive for about one half of the increase above normal of the casual pressure (Smirk, 1944). With the removal of the excitatory causes as in sleep or with the conditions under which the basal pressure is recorded the supplemental pressure will approximate to zero at which level the blood pressure would, of course, be basal. That the supplemental pressure of a group of hypertensives would fall with any treatment, medicinal or psychological, might be anticipated as affecting the physical and emotional reactions of the patient. In the patients under observation the average supplemental blood pressure was 48/22 mm or about the level already noted in studies on hypertensives conducted in this department (Kilpatrick, 1948). Under treatment the average supplemental pressure was reduced to 27/12 mm. The fact that, in all patients who were given a placebo, the supplemental pressure with it

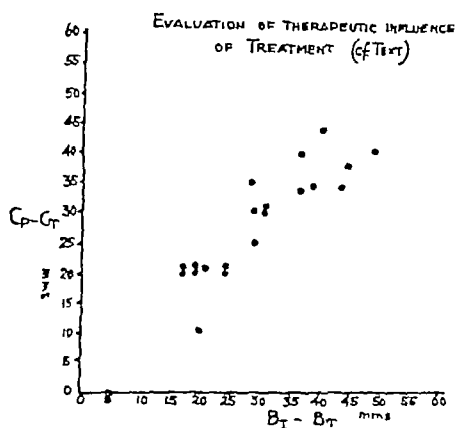
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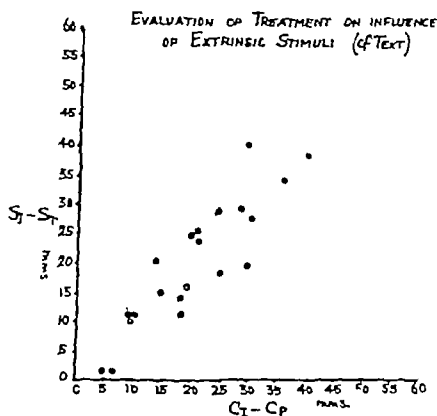
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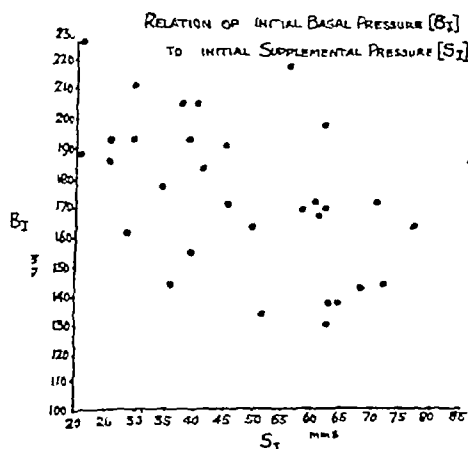
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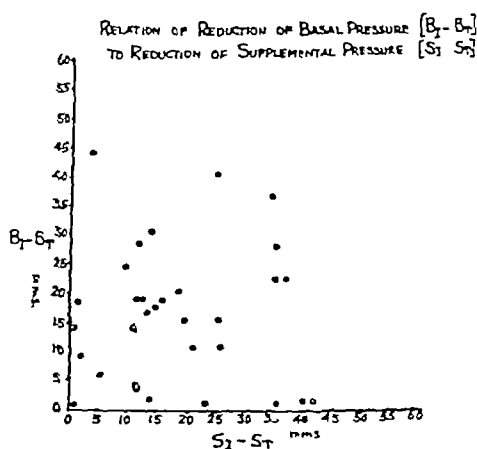


FIG 3—(A) Relation of initial basal pressure (BI) to basal pressure with placebo (BP)
 (B) Relation of supplemental pressure during treatment (ST) to that with placebo (SP)
 (C) Evaluation of therapeutic influence of treatment (of text)
 (D) Evaluation of treatment on influence of extrinsic stimuli (of text)
 (E) Relation of initial basal pressure (BI) to initial supplemental pressure (SI)
 (F) Relation of reduction of basal pressure (BI-BT) to reduction of supplemental pressure (SI-ST)

approximates to that during treatment (cf Fig 3B) indicates that the reduction effected in supplemental blood pressure is a psychological one, for one could not expect an alteration in the influence of emotional stimuli when the patient is unaware of any change in the regime or medicine. If the effect were otherwise the supplemental pressure would be greater with a placebo than with the use of thiocyanate. The supplemental pressure fall in those patients with no significant alteration in basal pressure represents the total effect of thiocyanate therapy and therefore is due only to the psychological effect of treatment. The psychological effect of thiocyanate therapy therefore may be estimated by the difference between the initial supplemental pressure (SI) and that with a placebo (SP). This measure of the influence of thiocyanate in the supplemental pressure as opposed to its effect on the basal pressure may be shown arithmetically to equal the difference between the initial casual pressure (CI) and the casual pressure with a placebo (CP) since the casual pressure by definition is the sum of the basal and supplemental pressures and as the basal pressure under treatment and with a placebo is the same. The relationship in this series between the differences of the initial casual and supplemental pressures and those with a placebo, CI-CP and SI-ST, respectively, is indicated in Fig 3D in those patients whose reduction in pressure was significant, the formula CI-CP allowing of a more direct estimate of the psychological influences of treatment of patients in whom, for any reason basal recordings are unobtainable. Again as the supplemental pressure with thiocyanate and with a placebo have been shown to be approximately the same (cf Fig 3B) it follows (because the casual pressure is the sum of the basal and supplemental pressures) that the measurement of the direct effect of thiocyanate (BI-BT) will be the same as the difference between the casual under treatment and with a placebo (CP-CT) so allowing of a measurement of this influence without the necessity of having recordings of the basal blood pressure. That this relationship is present in this series is seen by scrutiny of Fig 3C. These relationships are present only when there is a significant fall in pressure with treatment.

When the relationship of the initial basal and supplemental pressures is regarded (cf Fig 3E), it will be seen that there is a tendency for higher basal pressures to be associated with lower supplemental pressures, e.g. of 10 basal pressures over 180 mm 8 were associated with supplemental pressures less than 45 mm, while of 18 under 180 only 6 had associated supplemental pressures less than 45 mm. A possible explanation may lie in the fact that most

of the patients whose basal blood pressure was over 180 mm were those in whom pathological changes were more advanced and therefore the cardiovascular system would be less able to reflect the effects of extrinsic stimuli. Smirk (1944) found the basal and supplemental pressures were substantially independent variables in a group of patients with essential hypertension selected for the absence of congestive heart failure and other complications. Kilpatrick (1948) showed that when heart failure occurred the supplemental pressure was reduced in greater degree relative to the basal. It is not surprising, therefore that in the present series of cases including both groups that some of the more advanced hypertensives with heart failure or impending failure have lower supplemental pressures.

It would be likely as the effect of thiocyanate on the supplemental pressure is independent of the effect on the basal that the reduction effected in the former would bear no relation to that produced in the latter. This is indicated in Fig 3F which shows the basal pressure reduction plotted against the fall in supplemental pressure.

It would appear, therefore that the effect of thiocyanate therapy on hypertensives in reducing blood pressure is a direct one as measured by the fall in basal pressure and also an indirect one as measured by the reduction in supplemental pressure the combination of influences being responsible for the alteration produced in the casual blood pressure.

At this juncture one may conveniently regard the blood pressure reductions in the light of the extent of pathological change evident in the patients examined. All the patients in this series showed evidence of pathological changes associated with hypertension, whatever the aetiology, and this may be because the average age was over 55 years. All patients except two had some degree of cardiac enlargement involving the left ventricle which was of the typical hypertensive shape, it was possible to classify the enlargement as minimal, moderate, and considerable. Electrocardiography showed left axis shift in all cases, with a varying degree of left ventricular strain in over 50 per cent, particularly in those with large hearts. As the retinal vessels are the only ones capable of direct examination it was largely on the basis of retinal vascular change that the following clinical classification of the patients depends. Four subdivisions seemed practicable namely

Group 1 (a) Minimal retinal changes in the shape of tortuosity and mild arterial constriction. Slight or no cardiac enlargement. Left axis deviation.

Group 2 (b) Moderate retinal changes, tortuosity, vascular constriction and nipping of the

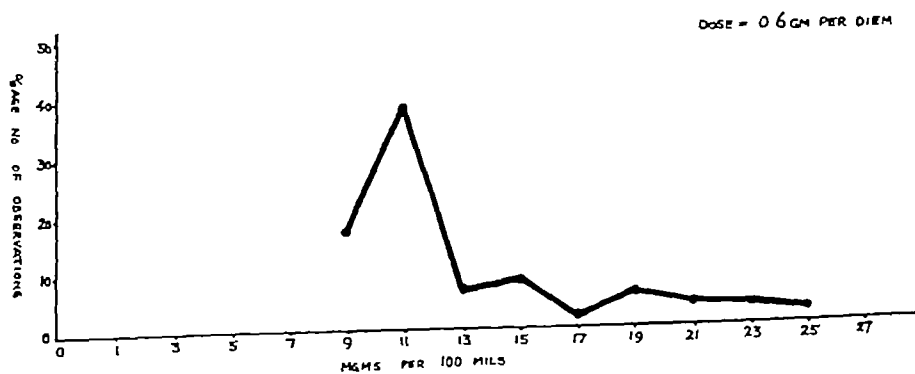
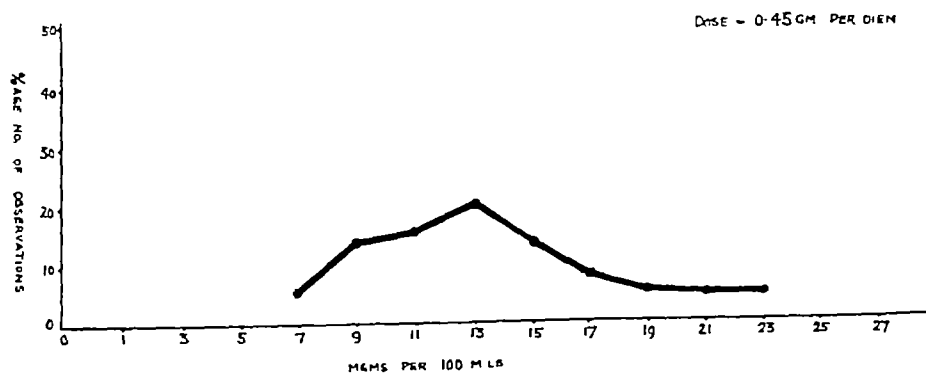
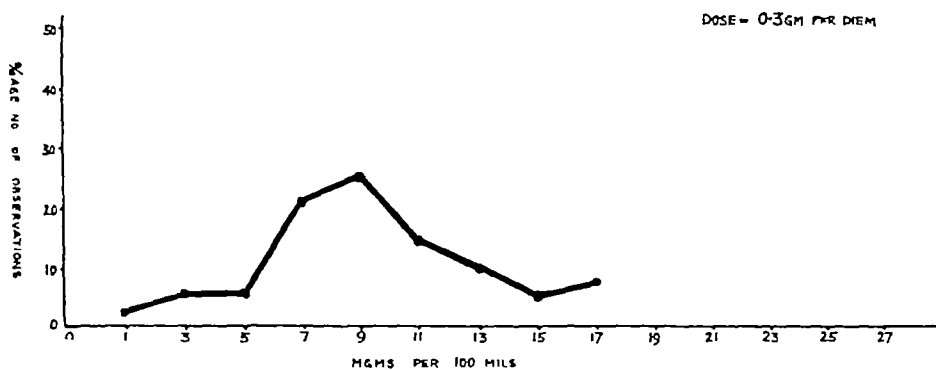


FIG 4 —Relationship of thiocyanate serum-concentration to dosage

arteriovenous crossings Moderate cardiac enlargement

Group 3 (c) Marked retinal change but without papilloedema, hemorrhage or exudate Cardiac enlargement usually moderate

Group 4 (d) Marked retinal changes including hemorrhage exudate, and papilloedema Cardiac enlargement usually considerable

TABLE II

RELATION OF REDUCTION IN CASUAL AND IN BASAL BLOOD PRESSURE TO ASSOCIATED VASCULAR CHANGE IN PATIENTS WITH HYPERTENSION

Clinical sub-division (see text)	Number of patients	No showing reduction of Casual pressure of more than 40/20 mm	No showing reduction in Basal pressure greater than	
			20/10 mm	15/10 mm
Group 1	9	7	6	8
Group 2	3	2	1	2
Group 3	15	8	6	9
Group 4	5	1	1	1
Total	32	18	14	20

It will be seen from Table II that reductions in casual blood pressure occurred in each group, but the incidence of reduction was greater in groups 1 and 2 than in 2 and 3. Indeed, out of 12 patients in the first two groups 9 had significant falls of casual pressure while in the latter two groups, 9 out of 20 patients showed any significant reduction in pressure. When the basal pressure reductions are viewed in the light of the degree of pathological change evident in the patients a similar distribution is seen. Thus it would appear that reductions in blood pressure tend to occur more easily in patients in whom the pathological changes associated with hypertension are least in evidence, such a conclusion is in keeping with the findings of Watkinson and Evans (1947) in this respect.

DOSAGE AND BLOOD LEVELS OF KCNS

The dosage of the drug was a variable conditioned mainly in these patients by the response in blood pressure reduction. Experience had already shown that to start at a high dosage was to invite the onset of complications particularly in the form of rashes and gastro-intestinal upset, hence the initial dose was the moderate one of 0.3 g daily. Blood levels were recorded at weekly intervals using Bowler's modification of Barker's technique (1944). If the

blood pressure response were inadequate after four weeks the dose was increased by 0.15 g daily. It was found that 0.45 g was the dose usually necessary to produce a reasonable fall in basal and in casual pressure. If however such a fall did not occur the dose was again increased in several instances to 0.9 g daily. Generally the blood level followed the dose and larger doses were productive of higher serum concentrations (cf Fig 4). It was noted that the lack of response in patients in whom no satisfactory fall of blood pressure was attained could usually be attributed to the development of some complication of thiocyanate e.g. rash or diarrhoea early in treatment in which case the drug was discontinued. Some patients did not have an appreciable fall in blood pressure despite large doses of drug and the attainment of high blood concentrations, e.g. over 20 mg per 100 ml. Furthermore in almost all patients in whom the pressure fall was adequate a dose of 0.45 g daily was sufficient and this generally produced blood levels in the region of 8-12 mg per 100 ml (cf Fig 4). It would seem therefore that an adequate blood level must be maintained in the region of 10 mg per 100 ml, which is best produced slowly and that if the patient does not show a fall in blood pressure when the level is raised to this extent they are most unlikely to do so by attempting to raise it still higher. In several instances blood levels of over 25 mg per 100 ml were maintained for several weeks without producing a further fall in blood pressure.

Here one would remark that if a careful check is maintained on the serum level of thiocyanate and if the patient is seen frequently there appears to be little danger of untoward effects of therapy. Complications in this series were infrequent and took the form of rashes and gastro-intestinal upsets in four cases. In one only were mental symptoms encountered. As the average age in this series was 55 years it would indicate that age is no contra-indication to therapy.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Selected patients with hypertension have been treated with thiocyanate over periods varying from one to twenty months. A reduction in basal blood pressure of more than 15/10 mm was noted in twenty or 62 per cent of the patients. The greater reductions tended to occur with the lower or moderate blood pressures. This reduction in basal pressure has been shown to account for a proportion of the casual pressure fall and it has been suggested that the diminution in basal pressure represents the effective fall directly due to the therapy utilized, in this case, thiocyanate.

Indications have been given that the effect of the psychological influence of thiocyanate treatment may be measured by taking the difference in casual blood pressure initially and that occurring with a placebo, or by subtracting the supplemental pressure under treatment from the initial supplemental pressure. This latter measure of the psychological influence of treatment depending on the conception that the supplemental pressure is an index of the effect of physical, metabolic, and emotional stimuli of which, under the conditions of this investigation, the emotion was the principal factor. In addition, the therapeutic effects of thiocyanate might be gauged either by taking the difference between the basal pressure before and during treatment or by the difference between the casual pressure under treatment and with a placebo. This was shown to be expressed conveniently by the equation $CI - CP = BI - BT$ where CI and CP respectively were casual pressure initially and with a placebo, and BI and BT were the initial basal and the basal pressure under treatment.

It has been shown that greater reductions are to be anticipated in patients in whom permanent pathological changes secondary to the hypertension are not advanced. The more these changes are in evidence as judged by heart size, electrocardiogram, and fundal examination, the less likelihood is there of any influence occurring with thiocyanate.

The following conclusions can therefore be drawn from this study.

The influence of potassium thiocyanate in reducing significantly the casual blood pressure in selected patients with hypertension is due to a diminution in both basal and supplemental pressure.

The reduction in basal blood pressure probably represents the direct effect of thiocyanate on the cardiovascular system.

The reduction in supplemental blood pressure with thiocyanate is a measure of the influence of this treatment in diminishing the effect of extrinsic stimuli on the patient, and is produced in a manner similar to the effect of a placebo.

The larger reductions in basal blood pressure are found in patients in whom pathological changes in the cardiovascular system are not advanced.

The optimal serum concentration of potassium thiocyanate is 8–12 mg per 100 ml which may be attained usually by a dose of 0.3–0.45 g daily. Toxic effects are commoner with levels above this limit, but with care the serum concentration may be raised to much higher levels without complications, although it is not considered advisable to produce blood serum levels above 12 mg per 100 ml.

If the desired effect of thiocyanate therapy is not produced by serum concentrations of 8–12 mg per 100 ml it is unlikely to occur by increasing the dose and the blood level.

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RADIOKYMOGRAPHY IN PATENT DUCTUS ARTERIOSUS

BY

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From The London Chest Hospital

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The introduction of radiokymography dates from the pioneer work of Gött and Rosenthal (1912). The modern multiple slit kymograph was developed subsequently by Stumpf and his co-workers (1934), while later studies were made by Faber and Kjaergaard (1936) and Bordet and Fischgold (1937). In an earlier paper one of us (Wood, 1939) described the kymographic patterns that comprise the borders of the normal cardiac silhouette.

In the present study, X-ray kymography has been applied to the diagnosis of patent ductus arteriosus. The development during the past decade of the surgical treatment of the condition has greatly increased the importance of a diagnosis that may be difficult. In some cases the characteristic continuous murmur is not present and according to statistics quoted by Brown (1939) the pathognomonic murmur is absent in more than half of the cases. On the other hand Taussig (1947) claims that the diagnosis is based on the finding of a continuous murmur over the pulmonary area and that unless such a murmur is present the diagnosis cannot be made with certainty. It is when a murmur confined to systole is heard at the pulmonary area that diagnostic difficulties are likely to arise. Differentiation from pulmonary stenosis may not be easy and the possibility that patency of the ductus may be associated with other anomalies has to be remembered. It is an essential part of the diagnosis to exclude associated defects since when these exist ligation of a ductus may abolish an important compensatory mechanism. As exploratory operations are obviously undesirable, no effort must be spared to determine the correct diagnosis. We consider that the radiokymographic appearances which we now present should help to place the diagnosis of patent ductus arteriosus on a secure basis.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION AND RADIOGRAPHIC TECHNIQUE

We have made radiokymographs in every patient in whom a diagnosis of patent ductus arteriosus was made or entertained. The majority of these later came to operation and in every instance the diagnosis was confirmed. The kymographs were all taken with the moving grid technique at a focus film distance of four feet. The grid used has a spacing of 11.5 mm between the horizontal slits. At first, an exposure time of 3 seconds was used but later the rate of fall of the grid was increased to give an exposure of 1.8 seconds. At this speed satisfactory tracings were obtained with a heart beating at the normal rate, and also in patients with tachycardia.

Kymographs in the postero-anterior position were taken and these were supplemented by films in the oblique positions especially the left oblique, whenever this appeared desirable. A standard exposure time was maintained so that the tracings made were comparable. This applied particularly where kymographs before and after operation were contrasted. The exposure factors were 65 KVP for children and as much as 90 KVP for full size adults, using 100 milliamperes with a rotating anode tube. In sixteen patients operation for ligation of the patent ductus was subsequently undertaken.

X-RAY APPEARANCES

The abnormality most commonly found in postero-anterior films of patients with patent ductus arteriosus is a prominence of the pulmonary arc and, in less degree, of the pulmonary conus. The cardiac outline may in other instances be entirely normal in patients proved at operation to have the same congenital defect. Taussig (1947) has referred to the slight prominence of the pulmonary conus in some normal children, and has insisted that the

diagnosis of patent ductus arteriosus should never be based solely on the contour of the heart. Consequently, the diagnosis must depend largely upon the murmurs unless other means are available, such as radiokymography.

The kymographic appearances of the left border of the cardiac silhouette in the normal heart may be summarized as follows. In the ventricular area waves of a certain type are seen, these consist of a curved upper limb due to the slow relaxation of the ventricle in diastole and a more horizontal lower limb representing the rapid contraction in systole. Above this is the zone of mixed or confused movements described originally by Stumpf (1934). This lies between the pulmonary artery waves above and those of the left ventricle below. The aorta and pulmonary artery show characteristic waves which have an almost horizontal upper limb due to lateral displacement by the pulse wave and a sloping lower limb representing the subsequent slower elastic recoil.

Light is thrown on the origin of the mixed movements by the kymograph shown in Fig 1 which is taken from a man aged, 70, with complete heart block. There is one large ventricular wave recorded in the left ventricular area in each segment whereas at the lower part of the right border during the corresponding interval of time three distinct waves are seen which can only be ascribed to auricular contractions. In the segment immediately above

the left ventricular region a further three waves can be seen of a similar rhythm which must also be auricular in origin and be ascribed to the left auricle or left auricular appendix which curves forward in this area at the root of the great vessels. This provides evidence that the left auricle may form part of the left border of the cardiac silhouette. It also shows that the mixed movements described must be partly auricular in origin, the other components being the super-imposed pulmonary artery waves. This zone of mixed movements must not be confused with the fine vibration waves described below, which lie in the ductus area between the aortic and the pulmonary artery levels.

KYMOGRAPHIC SIGNS IN PATENT DUCTUS ARTERIOSUS

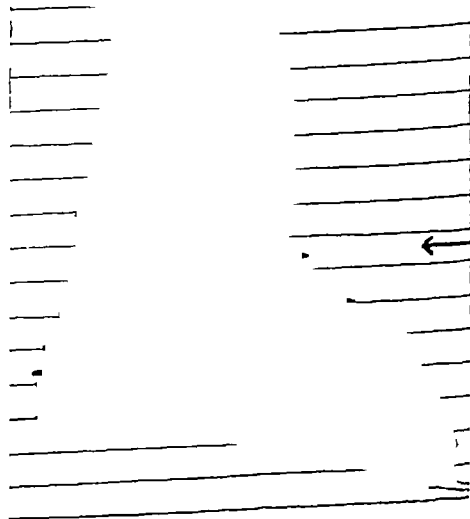
In our kymographic study of sixteen patients with patent ductus arteriosus proved at operation, we have observed four special features of the left border of the cardiac silhouette. They are as follows:

- (1) Para-aortic waves
- (2) Vibration waves
- (3) Exaggerated pulmonary artery waves
- (4) Exaggerated upper left ventricular waves

Of these four signs the first two relate to the lesion itself while the last two are consequences of the hæmodynamic disorder caused by the defect. The features of each sign are described as follows:



A



B

FIG 1 —Man, aged 70 Complete A-V block (A) Kymograph (B) Tracing showing auricular waves (marked by arrow) on left border of heart

Para aortic waves These are wave forms which lie parallel to and lateral to the aortic knuckle. They are less dense than the shadow of the aorta but are usually well seen when present as in Fig. 2. These waves differ from the zig-zag vascular shadows often seen well away from the mediastinum in the lung fields, which show transmitted pulsation from the aorta or left ventricle. This sign was present in six of our cases. It has been encountered in no other condition and we have never seen it in any kymograph taken after ligation of the ductus.

Vibration waves These occupy a narrow region immediately below the aortic waves and blend farther down with the pulmonary artery waves. They are shown in Fig. 3 in which (A) shows the whole kymograph and (B) a magnification of the encircled zone in (A). The fine vibration waves of a frequency of approximately 400 a minute are seen at the centre of the magnified zone. Careful scrutiny is often required to detect these waves, by the naked eye in the kymograph. The reproduction in Fig. 4 shows ill defined vibration waves, but the accompanying drawing made from the film by tracing the outline of the waves from the film, placed over a horizontal viewing box, illustrates them and their

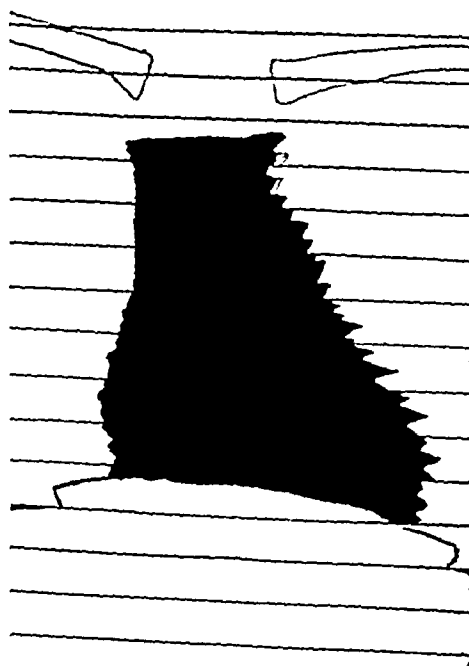
position. Fig. 5 shows a kymograph taken in the left anterior oblique position. The vibration waves are seen in the magnified section on the border of the ascending part of the arch of the aorta in a position that is surprising in view of the comparative remoteness from the ductus region. However it is difficult to assign any other interpretation to these waves which have been encountered on several occasions in left oblique films.

It is suggested that vibration waves constitute a visual radiological counterpart of the palpable clinical thrill and that they are caused by the vibration of the ductus and the adjacent parts of the aorta and pulmonary artery. In some of our earlier kymographs, the zone of fine wave forms was not well seen. This was due in part to the inherent difficulties of radiography in young children. With increased experience of the method and the subject better results were obtained and we have found the zone of fine wave forms to be a frequent feature of the kymograph in patent ductus arteriosus being present in 12 of our 16 cases. Moreover in kymographs taken after operative cure of the condition these special wave forms are no longer seen.

Exaggerated pulmonary artery waves These are



A



B

FIG. 2.—Boy, aged 6. Patent ductus arteriosus. (A) Kymograph showing para-aortic waves. (B) Tracing of the kymograph. para-aortic waves shaded.

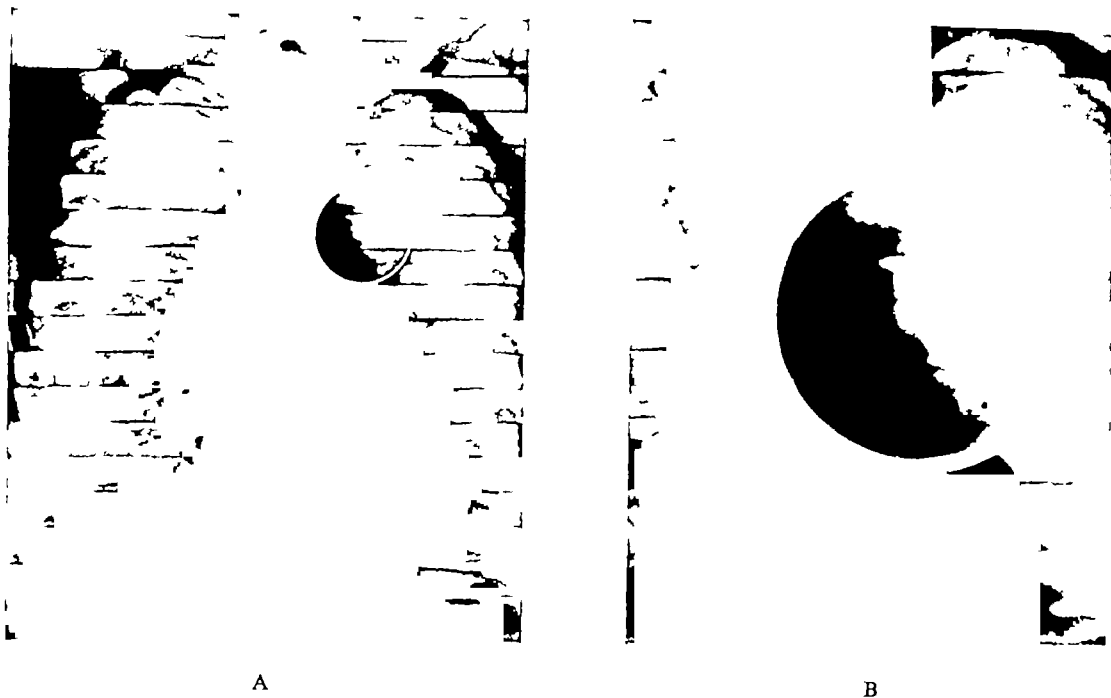


FIG 3—Girl, aged 6 Patent ductus arteriosus (A) Kymograph (B) Magnification of encircled zone in (A) to show vibration waves

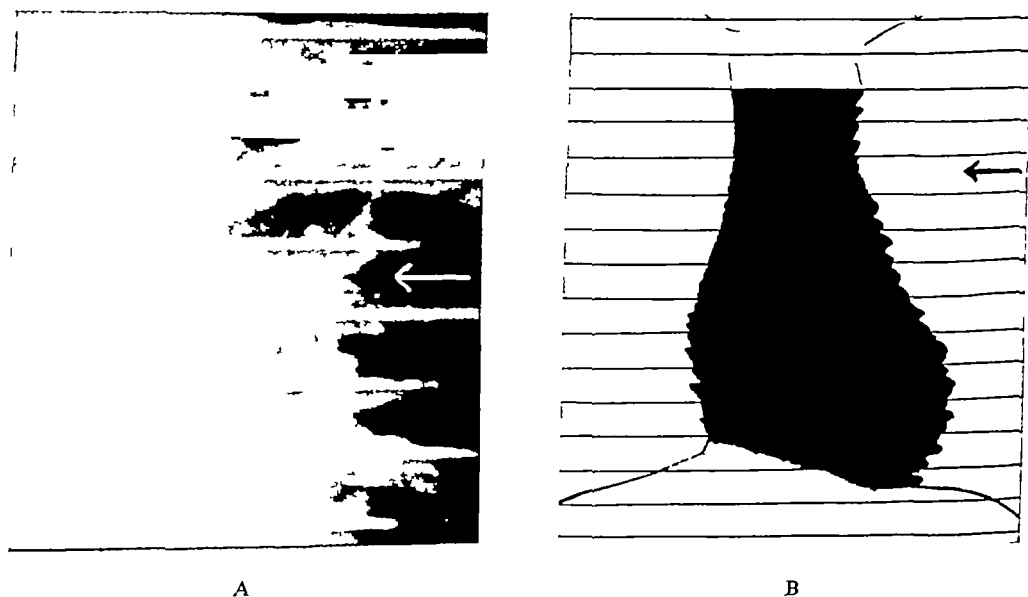


FIG 4—Boy, aged 13 Patent ductus arteriosus (A) Portion of kymograph showing ill-defined vibration waves (B) Tracing of the whole kymograph to illustrate position (arrow)

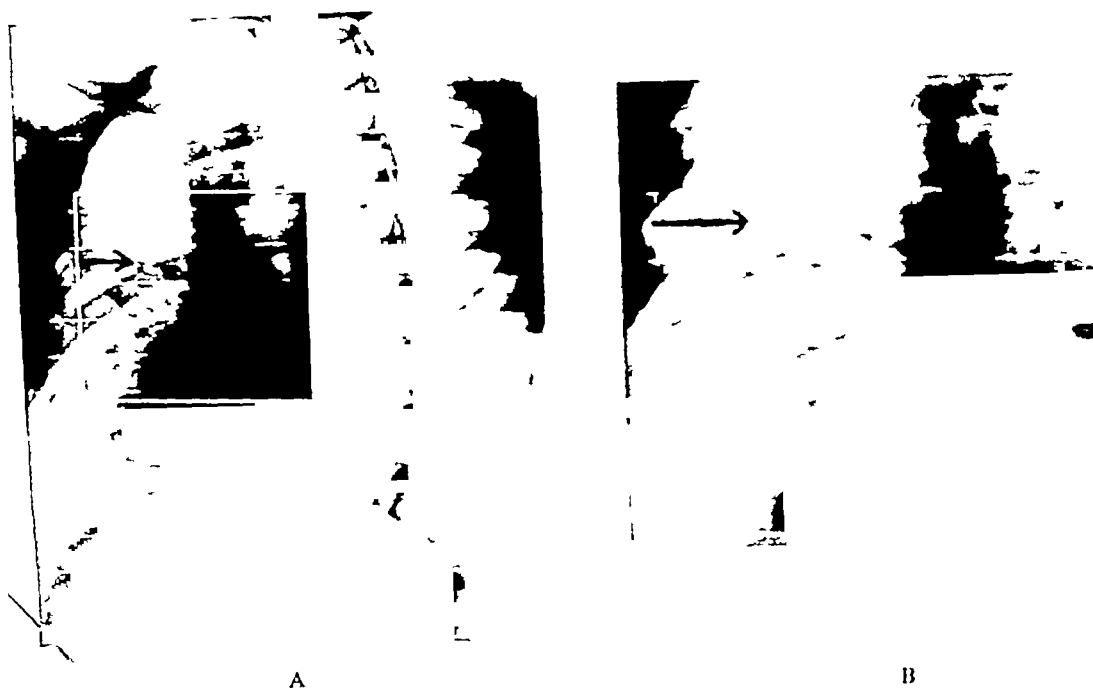


FIG 5—Girl, aged 7 Patent ductus arteriosus (A) Kymograph in left anterior oblique position (B) Oblong marked area magnified to show vibration waves on border of shadow of ascending part of arch of aorta (arrow)

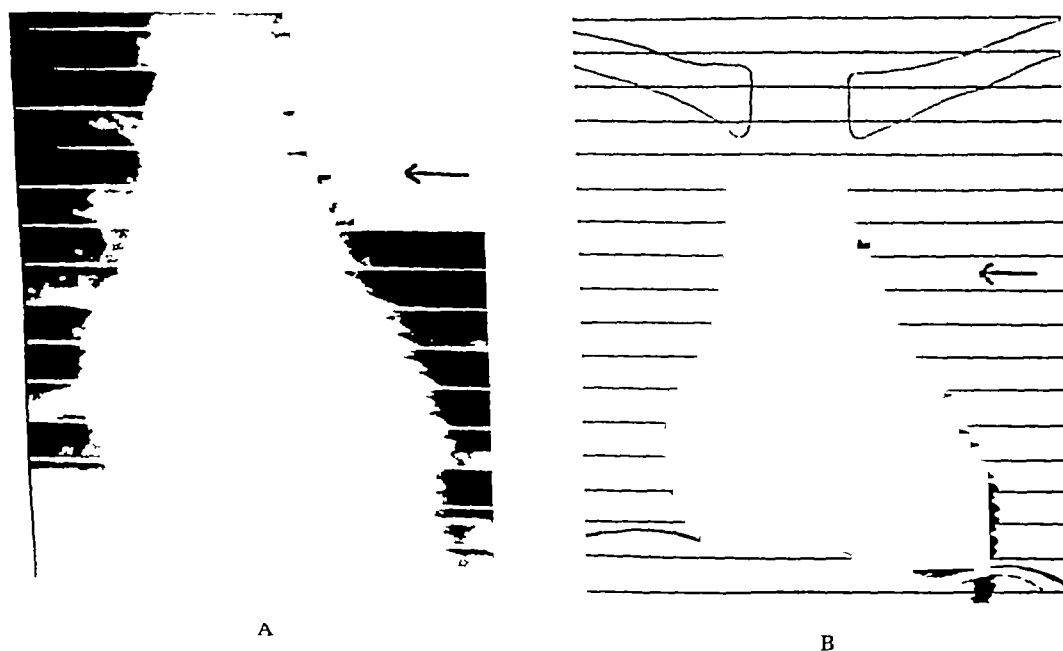


FIG 6—Woman, aged 30 Patent ductus arteriosus (A) Kymograph showing slightly convex pulmonary arc with exaggerated waves (B) Tracing of kymograph to illustrate

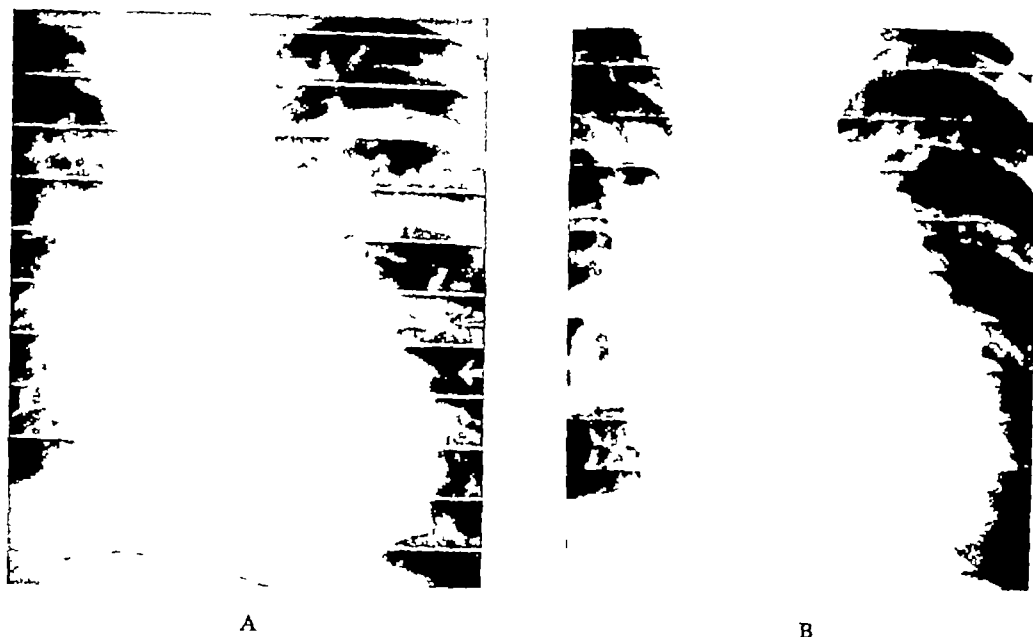


FIG 7—Boy, aged 7. Patent ductus arteriosus. (A) Kymograph showing exaggerated upper left ventricular waves. (B) Kymograph of same patient after operation showing disappearance of the abnormally large waves.

shown in Fig 6A in which the pulmonary arc is slightly convex. The accompanying drawing (Fig 6B) illustrates the essential features of the kymograph. These appearances are in accordance with the prominent and pulsatile pulmonary arc frequently seen on radioscopy. The main branches of the pulmonary artery may also show exaggerated movement corresponding to the hilar dance so often seen on screen examination, this is of value in excluding pulmonary stenosis.

Exaggerated upper left ventricular waves. Fig 7A shows very conspicuous wave forms due to the vigorous contraction of the upper part of the left ventricle. Such exaggeration is also seen in aortic incompetence. This is not surprising since both conditions involve a leak from the aorta and may therefore be expected to produce similar haemodynamic disorders. After closure of the communication between the aorta and the pulmonary artery by ligation of the ductus, these abnormal ventricular contractions disappear, as is shown in Fig 7B, a kymograph taken after operation.

SUMMARY

Radiokymography has been applied to the diagnosis of patent ductus arteriosus. The series here presented comprises sixteen patients proved at

operation to have this congenital defect. The following four kymographic signs are described:

- (1) Para-aortic waves lying parallel to and lateral to the aortic zone.
- (2) Vibration waves situated immediately below the aortic zone and between this and the pulmonary zone.
- (3) Exaggerated pulmonary artery waves.
- (4) Exaggerated upper left ventricular waves.

The production of these signs is discussed and reasons are given for relating the para-aortic and vibration waves to the ductus and the vibration in it and in adjacent structures. On the other hand, the amplification of the waves normally seen in relation to the pulmonary artery and the upper part of the left ventricle is due to the associated haemodynamic disorder.

Reference is made to some of the difficulties in clinical diagnosis. It is considered that radiokymography is valuable in helping to establish conclusively the diagnosis before operation.

We wish to thank our surgical colleagues at the London Chest Hospital, especially Mr T Holmes Sellers for their co-operation and help with the surgical data relating to the patients.

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MASS MINIATURE RADIOGRAPHY IN THE DETECTION OF HEART DISEASE

BY

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From the Mass Radiography Unit, Glasgow

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The Glasgow Mass Radiography Unit began operations in the summer of 1944. Like other such units in the country, its primary intention was the early detection of tuberculous lung disease although it was realized that non-tuberculous conditions and notably heart disease would come within its sphere. The Mass Radiography Sub-Committee of the Minister of Health's Standing Advisory Committee on Tuberculosis, in 1943, laid down standards of cardiovascular abnormalities based on the appearances in full-size chest X-ray films taken after the miniature film had shown an unusual cardiovascular shadow. The abnormal appearances sought were general increase in size of the cardiovascular shadow, increased density of the shadow, displacement of the right cardiac border to the right and of the left border to the left in varying degree, and undue prominence of the large blood vessels.

It was soon observed that the postero-anterior large films gave little information that could not be given by the miniature film. The experienced eye could detect enlargement of the cardiac shadow in the miniature film, making allowance for the greater distortion at a distance of 36 inches from the X-ray tube focus as against 60 inches. Varying shades of increased density of the cardiovascular shadow itself such as may be caused by the enlarged left auricle of mitral stenosis could also be noted. Accordingly, it became the rule to offer full clinical examination to any person found to have an abnormality of the cardiac shadow on the miniature X-ray film.

During the initial period of our investigation some other observations were made. It was often seen, for example, that prominence of the pulmonary artery shadow did not indicate clinical heart disease. It was therefore, decided to ask certain questions designed to bring out a history of previous rheumatic infection or of other illness significant in the aetiology of heart disease, and to discover the numbers of

people passing through the unit who understood they had some form of heart disease. It was thought that if the X-ray appearances and history could be correlated the findings might be decisive in limiting needless recalls. Also, a history of known heart disease was frequently contradicted by the absence of cardiac abnormality on radiological or clinical examination.

After consideration of the experience of the unit in its first year of operation it was decided that the following groups should be recalled for full clinical examination: (1) patients with a history of rheumatic fever, chorea, or other illness suggestive of acute rheumatism, (2) those with a history of heart disease, and (3) those with abnormality of the cardiovascular shadow in the miniature X-ray film. It was hoped in this way to ensure the detection of cardiac abnormalities in patients unaware of an existing heart lesion with the minimum of inconvenience. This survey was begun in September 1945, and continued till March 1947, when the direct association of the authors in the work of the unit ceased. An account of the findings follows and certain conclusions are drawn, these should enable the unit, while pursuing its primary purpose of detecting tuberculosis in the community, to have a clearer understanding of the significance of the many cardiovascular abnormalities encountered in the day to day work of the unit.

AGE DISTRIBUTION

Fully two thirds of those examined were under twenty years of age and rather more than half under fifteen. The reasons for this distribution are the heavy concentration of the unit on the examination of school-leavers, and the choice for survey of industries in which there is a high proportion of young workers because the highest returns of active pulmonary tuberculosis can be expected in these

groups As regards heart lesions, the expectation from such a distribution is that congenital disease and lesions due to acute rheumatism will predominate but not lesions the result of degeneration hypertension or chronic lung disease The average recall rate for our purpose was about 49 per thousand, it was rather more in females and rather less in males mainly because of the larger recall rate in the well represented group of girls under fifteen

GROUPS RECALLED FOR FURTHER STUDY

Table I shows the relative parts played by history of heart disease, abnormality of the cardiovascular shadow in the X-ray film, and rheumatic history in the recalling of examinees for clinical examination It brings out that a finding of X-ray abnormality was the commonest single cause for recall while a history of rheumatic illness and a history of heart disease were much less common causes

TABLE I

INCIDENCE OF ABNORMAL X-RAY HEART SHADOW AND A HISTORY OF HEART DISEASE OR RHEUMATIC FEVER

Total surveyed (both sexes)	34,918
Recalled for heart investigation	1,703
History of heart disease	31%
Finding of X ray abnormality	66%
History of rheumatic illness	44%
History of heart disease + finding of X ray abnormality	11%
History of heart disease + history of rheumatic illness	19%
Finding of X ray abnormality + rheumatic illness	19%
History of heart disease + finding of X ray abnormality + history of rheumatic illness	7%

The percentage figures refer to the number recalled

It was also found that when a history of heart disease was not elicited, a finding of X-ray abnormality was a much more common cause for recall than a history of rheumatic illness The reverse was the case in the group in which a history of heart disease was obtained

THE VALUE OF A HISTORY OF RHEUMATIC ILLNESS

Questions were put by trained clerical staff at the time of the miniature film examination to elicit a history of one or more attacks of rheumatic fever, one or more attacks of chorea or of other illness consistent with acute rheumatism A preliminary

investigation had suggested that histories of sore throat blood-poisoning and scarlet fever were too common to be of value although if any one of these was accompanied by arthritis or muscular pains some importance might be attached to it Such rheumatic symptoms are represented in this series under the heading of "other rheumatic manifestations" All histories were closely checked by the medical examiner at the time of the clinical examination and almost invariably found to be correct

Table II shows the relative frequency of the various types and grades of rheumatic illness in this group A single attack of rheumatic fever was the most frequent finding other rheumatic manifestations were less common chorea was relatively rare There was no great difference between the sexes except that chorea was more common among the females

TABLE II

THE INCIDENCE OF THE VARIOUS GRADES OF RHEUMATIC INFECTION IN THE GROUP RECALLED ON THIS ACCOUNT

	Male	Female	Both sexes
History of rheumatic fever once	219	177	396
History of rheumatic fever twice or more	36	35	71
History of chorea once	17	37	54
History of chorea twice or more	1	7	8
History of rheumatic fever and chorea	13	7	20
History of other rheumatic manifestations	57	143	200
Totals	343	406	749

Table III shows the relationship in the whole series between a history of rheumatic infection and the clinical findings It brings out the greater frequency with which acquired heart disease is associated with multiple attacks of rheumatic fever or chorea and the relative unimportance in respect of organic disease of the group of "other rheumatic manifestations" Equally noticeable is the frequency of normal findings when there is a history of a single attack of rheumatic fever

In patients giving a history of rheumatic infection but not giving a history of heart disease there are few instances of acquired heart disease (21 out of 423 examined) suggesting that in most cases when acute rheumatism causes heart disease that fact is known to the patient On the other hand, in patients giving a history of rheumatic infection and a history of heart disease the opposite obtains, namely, a high incidence of organic heart disease, and this is

TABLE III

SHOWS HOW A HISTORY OF RHEUMATIC INFECTION IS RELATED TO (a) NORMAL FINDINGS, (b) NON-SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS, AND (c) EVIDENCE OF ORGANIC DISEASE

	Normal	Non-significant findings	Organic disease
History of rheumatic fever once	234 (54%)	80 (52%)	76 (52%)
History of rheumatic fever twice or more	23 (5%)	12 (8%)	32 (22%)
History of chorea once	30 (7%)	11 (7%)	12 (8%)
History of chorea twice or more	4 (1%)	1 (1%)	3 (2%)
History of chorea and rheumatic fever	9 (2%)	3 (2%)	8 (5%)
History of other rheumatic illness	130 (30%)	46 (30%)	16 (11%)
Total	430	153	147

again most marked where there is a history of multiple rheumatic infection. Six cases of congenital heart disease and thirteen of hypertension were also discovered.

The group of non-significant findings such as innocent mitral systolic murmurs, or a split first sound at the apex would be expected to run parallel with the group of normal findings if it had no relation to rheumatic illness, if it had such a relationship it should reflect the results in the group of organic disease findings. Table III suggests that it has closer affinities with the normal group than with the group of heart disease.

THE X-RAY APPEARANCES

The shadows on the 35 mm film, being photographs of the appearances on a fluorescent screen placed at a distance of 36 inches from the focus of the X-ray tube, are somewhat distorted. Those placed to the periphery of the photograph are larger than those more centrally placed in comparison with the actual structures within the chest, and also in respect of the fact that tissues within the chest which are close to the X-ray focus, and therefore far from the fluorescent screen, cast larger images than those farther from the X-ray focus. Thus in ordinary postero-anterior films in which the patient faces the fluorescent screen with his back to the X-ray tube the shadow cast by the spine or a posteriorly placed tumour will be relatively broader than that of the aorta and that in turn relatively larger than the shadow of the heart or an anteriorly placed tumour. Further, cardiac enlargement will

be emphasized and actual enlargement of the heart will never be quite so much as the shadow on the 35 mm film would suggest. Another point is that prominences posterior to the heart will be emphasized at the expense of the shadows cast by the lateral borders of the heart so that the pear-shaped increase of density in the heart shadow cast by the hypertrophied left auricle in mitral stenosis will be more obvious than in a film taken at a greater distance than 36 inches.

Slight scoliosis may simulate cardiac enlargement in a miniature film and so may slight rotation of the patient. Films showing evidence of such deformity or of rotation were not included in this series. Table IV shows the frequency with which various radiological abnormalities were found.

TABLE IV

FREQUENCY OF X-RAY ABNORMALITIES IN THE SERIES

	Male	Female	Both sexes
General cardiac enlargement	320	299	619
Prominence of pulmonary artery	182	277	459
Straightening of left heart border	41	74	115
Unfolding of aorta	42	45	87
Broadening of base of heart	18	50	68
Prominent conus	65	28	93
Dextrocardia	3	2	5

Table V shows the relationship between radiological general cardiac enlargement, irrespective of degree, and the clinical findings. It shows that in only a twelfth of the cases of cardiac enlargement without history of heart disease is there evidence of heart disease, and even where there is a history of heart disease the presence of a heart lesion in such cases is confirmed only in rather more than half the cases (about two thirds of females less than half of males).

The relationship between prominence of the pulmonary artery shadow in the miniature X-ray film and the clinical findings is shown in Table V. The pulmonary artery was judged to be prominent if it overlapped a line joining the aortic bulb and the left heart border at ventricular level. The Table shows that few cases with prominence of the pulmonary artery have an actual cardiac lesion even in the group with a history of heart disease less than half have been confirmed as in fact having heart disease. The same conclusion can be drawn when the clinical findings are related to straightening of the left heart border in the X-ray film.

TABLE V
RELATIONSHIP OF X RAY AND CLINICAL FINDINGS

	Normal	Non significant	Organic	Congenital	Hypertensive	Total
<i>Radiological Cardiac Enlargement</i>						
No history of heart disease	297 (72%)	83 (20%)	24 (6%)	4 (1%)	5 (1%)	413
History of heart disease	29 (28%)	14 (14%)	55 (53%)	3 (3%)	2 (2%)	103
<i>Prominence of the Pulmonary Artery Shadow</i>						
No history of heart disease	305 (73%)	96 (23%)	14 (3%)	3 (1%)	—	418
History of heart disease	10 (24%)	13 (32%)	16 (39%)	2 (5%)	—	41
<i>Prominence of Conus</i>						
No history of heart disease	24 (52%)	15 (33%)	6 (13%)	1 (2%)	—	46
History of heart disease	1 (4%)	3 (14%)	18 (82%)	0	—	22

When broadening of the base of the heart shadow (i.e. the distance between the right border of the superior vena cava and ascending aorta on the right and the descending part of the aortic arch on the left) is related to the clinical findings, it is found that if it is present in association with heart disease the fact of the latter is known to the patient. No case of organic heart disease was found in this group in the absence of a history of heart disease. The same conclusion could be drawn when clinical findings were correlated with unfolding of the aorta including prominence of the aortic bulb, as might be expected, hypertension was a more common finding in this group.

Table V also shows the relationship between prominence of the pulmonary conus and the clinical findings. When there is clinical evidence of disease and a prominent conus is noted in the X-ray film,

the patient is usually already aware that he has heart disease. At the same time, the frequency of discovery of unsuspected organic disease was higher than with prominence of the pulmonary artery.

THE CLINICAL EXAMINATION

The examination of 529 people who believed they had heart disease, revealed no evidence of this in 340 (64 per cent). Table VI shows this and also the incidence of cardiac lesions at different age groups. In almost all the cases the examination was entirely clinical, the findings in the erect position, in the supine position, on the left side, and after exertion being correlated. The blood pressure was taken if it was considered relevant. Only in exceptional cases were further aids to diagnosis, such as radiography in the oblique

TABLE VI
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF EXAMINEES AND INCIDENCE OF CARDIAC LESIONS IN THOSE WITH A HISTORY OF HEART DISEASE

	<i>Age in Years</i>								Total
	Up to 14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 and over	
Total number (A) (to nearest hundred)	189	46	30	20	28	22	11	3	349
Number with history of heart disease (B)	247	61	35	28	69	38	41	10	529
Percentage of (B) with heart disease	33	34	51	43	38	34	37	20	36

positions or following a barium swallow, electrocardiography or sphygmography, employed as it was the intention to interfere as little as possible with the routine of the school child or worker. Patients were on occasions admitted to hospital for diagnostic purposes or with a view to treatment.

The main clinical findings have been sufficiently considered in the preceding sections of this paper. It remains to discuss first the group of what has been labelled non-significant findings, and secondly, to give the details of our findings in the "organic disease" group. Under the heading of non-significant findings are such final clinical diagnoses as split mitral first sounds, innocent mitral systolic murmurs, split pulmonary second sounds and pulmonary systolic murmurs.

The total incidence of innocent mitral systolic murmurs, pulmonary systolic murmurs and split mitral first sounds, is shown in Table VII. Of the 1703 cases 798 were males, and 905 females.

Split mitral first sound. This is probably most commonly confused with the presystolic murmur of mitral stenosis. A split first sound was diagnosed in this series when no diastolic element was brought out by change in posture or by exercise, the sound was usually made more evident by exercise and was best heard at the end of expiration when the breath was held. As long as its possibility is kept in mind the very different character of the first part of the sound is not likely to be mistaken for a short presystolic murmur. In our series it was not commonly associated with X-ray abnormalities. Its incidence was 10 per cent in the absence of X-ray abnormality, and 7 per cent in association with such abnormality.

It was no more common in patients giving a history of rheumatic fever than in those without such a history, the incidence was 8 per cent in both groups. These figures merit the belief that rheumatic infection played no part in the production of the findings. We are satisfied that the finding is not a significant one and that its incidence in such a series as this is as high as 8 per cent.

Innocent mitral systolic murmurs. The certain diagnosis of this group of murmurs is always difficult. Where a murmur did not have the properties possessed by the "organic murmurs," of loudness, propagation, and encroachment on the first sound, it was considered in the light of Evans' classification of innocent murmurs (Evans, 1947) and its relation to the patient's posture, and its position in the cardiac cycle, was studied. Phonocardiography was not used.

The incidence of the finding was between 5 and 6 per cent in both sexes. Its frequency was 5 per cent in the absence of a history of rheumatic infection and 6 per cent when there was such a history—figures so close as to show that rheumatic fever played no part in its causation. Among the group who had no reason to believe they had heart disease the innocent mitral murmur was found in rather less than 4 per cent whereas it was found in more than 9 per cent of those who believed they had heart disease. The innocent murmur was found in only 4 per cent of those with and in 8 per cent of those without, radiological abnormality. Stress should be laid, therefore, on the comparatively common incidence of this murmur, its frequent confusion with the "organic murmur," and the absence of

TABLE VII

SHOWS THE INCIDENCE OF MITRAL SYSTOLIC MURMURS, PULMONARY SYSTOLIC MURMURS AND SPLIT MITRAL FIRST SOUNDS IN THE PRESENT SERIES

History of rheumatic infection	None				Rheumatic fever				Other rheumatic manifestations			
	No		Yes		No		Yes		No		Yes	
History of known heart disease	Absent	Pre-sent	Absent	Pre-sent	Absent	Pre-sent	Absent	Pre-sent	Absent	Pre-sent	Absent	Pre-sent
X-ray abnormality	22	729	130	73	200	85	178	86	17	121	33	29
Total mitral systolic	4	24	13	7	9	3	19	7	0	5	3	1
Total pulmonary systolic	3	76	7	8	13	5	16	4	1	18	2	2
Total split mitral first sound	3	52	14	7	18	3	20	5	1	12	1	1

correlation with a history of rheumatic fever or X-ray abnormality

Split pulmonary second sound This finding is not uncommon in mitral stenosis. A split pulmonary second sound was found frequently in the series of 1703 cases examined and no significance could be attached to the finding at the time of examination. These cases are being followed up. The exact numbers in the series cannot be given because the great frequency of the finding was not fully appreciated at the start of the investigation and it was not particularly noted at first. Lately the prevalence of this sign in the absence of any discoverable clinical abnormality became obvious and more recent observations have only served to confirm our opinion that it is particularly common and apparently without clinical significance. It was about twice as common in males and the incidence was comparable whether there was or was not an X-ray abnormality. It was almost twice as common when there was a rheumatic history and fully twice as common in those who understood they had heart disease.

Pulmonary systolic murmur The murmur was found alone, or in combination with other non-significant findings, in 155 cases (9 per cent). No account is taken here of those cases in which it was heard in association with mitral stenosis. It was more common in females—almost 13 per cent as against 5 per cent in males. Rheumatic infection was not concerned in its production—5 per cent as against 10 per cent in the absence of such a history. While it was found in a considerable proportion of cases understood to have heart disease, fully 7 per cent in a total of 529 yet it was found more commonly among those who had no reason to believe that they had a cardiac abnormality (10 per cent of 1174 examined). It was more common in the presence of radiological abnormality than in its absence, the abnormality reported in almost every case was enlargement of the pulmonary artery, resulting in straightening of the left heart border or actual prominence of the artery beyond that line. Further, it was most common in the younger age-groups, e.g. of the 155 cases 110 were under 15 years. It was comparatively rare in adult life. The probable explanation of the presence of the murmur is that the artery is dilated beyond a normal pulmonary ring, and its more common occurrence in the younger age-groups may be associated with the greater distensibility of the soft and resilient artery in adolescence. Increase in the blood flow in the pulmonary artery as brought about by exercise accentuates a murmur already there and often brings out a murmur not heard previously. The importance and significance of this murmur must

be recognized. Prominence of the pulmonary artery was much more commonly associated with it than with organic mitral disease.

ORGANIC DISEASE

Of the 1703 cases examined 220 (just over 12 per cent) were found to have organic heart disease (Table VI). The bulk of these had mitral valve disease, a few had aortic valve disease, and the remainder were found to have auricular fibrillation, coronary occlusion or myocarditis. Mitral valve disease was found in 185 (11 per cent) and aortic valve disease in 13 (less than one per cent), three patients had both aortic and mitral valve disease.

The incidence of normal findings among those believed to have heart disease has been stressed but it should be noted that a diagnosis of organic valve disease was occasionally made for the first time in the course of the routine work of the mass radiography unit. Mitral valve disease was diagnosed in 41 cases and aortic valve disease in 3. Of the 41 with mitral disease 21 gave a history of previous rheumatic infection. Therefore only 20, all of whom had abnormal X-ray findings would have been found in the series relying solely on the lead given by the radiological picture. One only of the three patients with aortic disease was discovered because of X-ray abnormalities (in the other two there was a history of rheumatic infection). Twenty-one cases therefore of organic valve disease were discovered as the result of abnormal radiological appearances in 34,918 routine X-rays of the chest.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In the course of the routine working of the Mass Radiography Unit in Glasgow many abnormal cardiovascular shadows were encountered. Of these the most common were general cardiac enlargement, prominence of the pulmonary artery, straightening of the left heart border, unfolding of the aorta, broadening of the base of the heart, prominence of the pulmonary conus and dextrocardia. In an effort to limit needless recalls an attempt was made to correlate the various radiological abnormalities with a history of previous rheumatic infection or known heart disease.

Of 34,918 cases X-rayed by the unit in the course of the investigation, fully 67 per cent were under 20 years of age. Altogether 798 males (4.3 per cent) and 905 females (5.5 per cent) were recalled. Of the 1703 recalled the commonest cause of recall was an unusual X-ray picture, a history of previous rheumatic infection was a less common cause of recall, and least common was a history of known heart disease. All three reasons for recall were present in 115 cases (almost 7 per cent).

A history of one attack of rheumatic fever was associated with a finding of organic heart disease in, roughly, only one in five cases—two or more attacks resulted in clinical evidence of disease in rather less than half the cases giving such a history. This is a low incidence, but it must be realized that no strict check could be made on the accuracy of the history of rheumatic fever, many comparatively minor febrile illnesses masquerade under this heading. Although the numbers were smaller, it was found that one attack of chorea resulted in organic heart disease slightly more often than did one attack of rheumatic fever. Patients with a history of previous rheumatic infection and found to have heart disease mostly knew of it, apart from examples of hypertension only 23 cases were found to have heart disease not previously known to them—21 with organic valve disease, 2 with congenital heart disease.

Radiological cardiac enlargement was associated with organic heart disease in 93 cases (out of 516 in whom this X-ray finding was reported). Prominence of the pulmonary artery shadow was not a common cause of heart disease being brought to light for the first time, only 14 cases of acquired and 3 of congenital disease were found in this way out of 418 examined. Prominence of the conus, though less frequently diagnosed in the film, was more likely to be supported by clinical evidence of organic disease, than was a prominent pulmonary artery.

An outstanding finding was that no evidence of disease was found in 340 out of 529 patients who believed they had heart disease (64 per cent).

The frequency of non-significant findings such as split mitral first sounds, mitral systolic murmurs, split pulmonary second sounds, and pulmonary systolic murmurs is noted and their relationship with radiological abnormalities and a history of rheumatic infection described.

Of the 1703 cases examined 220 were found to have acquired organic heart disease, of these 185 had mitral disease, 13 aortic disease, and 3 both mitral and aortic disease. Only 41 cases of mitral disease and 3 cases of aortic disease were found in which the disability had been unknown to the patient. Of these, 20 with mitral disease and one with aortic disease were referred solely on account of the radiological findings. Thus only 21 cases of organic valve disease were diagnosed for the first time in 34 918 routine X-rays of the chest.

In conclusion the common radiological patterns sometimes thought to be suggestive of heart disease are not, as a rule, associated with clinical signs of disease. Such patterns by themselves do not suffice for a diagnosis of heart disease.

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THE ELECTROCARDIOGRAM OF POSTERIOR CARDIAC INFARCTION

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In suspected coronary artery disease, no clinical sign can as yet displace the electrocardiograph which, by revealing past cardiac infarction, provides objective evidence for the diagnosis, much reliance must, therefore, be placed on the electrocardiographic signs of infarction. In lesions of the anterior wall, the signs are often characteristic, especially in chest leads. Posterior infarction is shown by deep and wide Q deflections by significant R-T deviation, and by T inversion in lead II and III, and in the unipolar left leg lead. In the absence of coronary R-T changes the signs of posterior infarction may be uncertain since inversion of T in lead III, and occasionally also in lead II, may occur without infarction, and Q in lead II and III and in the unipolar left leg lead may be equivocal. The practical experience of diagnostic difficulties has led to the present study which is to show the close similarity of certain types of cardiograms representing posterior infarction to tracings taken from patients without infarction, and to examine records of infarction for additional electrocardiographic signs that might be helpful in the interpretation of equivocal curves.

The object of the analysis was the form of the QRS complex, in which changes due to infarction could be expected to last longer, and to be more specifically characteristic of this lesion, than changes in the T wave. In the absence of necropsy control, care was taken to include cardiograms only if the clinical diagnosis was firmly established. Patients with cardiac infarction gave a typical history of pain, and showed the classical changes of posterior infarction in the standard leads. With one exception (Fig 3F), cardiograms were rejected if the signs of infarction were confined to the R-T segment and the T wave and did not include a small Q in lead III, if the cardiogram was equivocal, the diagnosis was accepted only if it was confirmed by serial tracings. Infarction was held to be absent if there was no history of pain and if the age and clinical condition

provided no suspicion of coronary disease. In a number of cases the clinical diagnosis was further supported by the presence of changes in serial cardiograms. Most of the tracings reviewed were taken in private practice with a Siemens electrocardiograph which registers time in 0.05 second. Some of the patients were seen at the National Heart Hospital under the care of Dr William Evans. The records of 40 patients with posterior infarction were analysed.

I. ELECTROCARDIOGRAMS WITH EQUIVOCAL CHANGES OF THE QRS COMPLEX IN THE STANDARD LEADS

Of 40 patients with posterior infarction 7 had standard limb leads with Q deflections in lead III, or II and III, which did not differ in size or depth or both from similar Q waves seen in patients without infarction. The cardiographic signs that caused uncertainty in the interpretation of the curves varied with the position of the long axis of the heart. In concordant cardiograms, showing mainly upright QRS complexes in the standard leads as seen when the heart was in the 'vertical' position according to Wilson's terminology, Q II and Q III were of uncertain significance if they were less than 0.04 second in width and if the amplitude of Q III was less than 25 per cent of the tallest R in any limb lead. Cardiograms with a similar QRS pattern were seen in patients without infarction. In the tracings illustrated in Fig 1 the infarct could not be recognized by the appearance of the Q waves or by any other change in the QRS complex, the presence or absence of S waves in lead I had no relation to the diagnosis, but Q I was more likely to be present when there was no infarction.

In discordant cardiograms, with QRS mainly upright in lead I and downward in lead III, Q was equivocal if it was deep, or deep and wide, in lead III, but small or absent in lead II. Care had to be taken to exclude a false Q III when each successive beat in lead III was examined, a small R was often

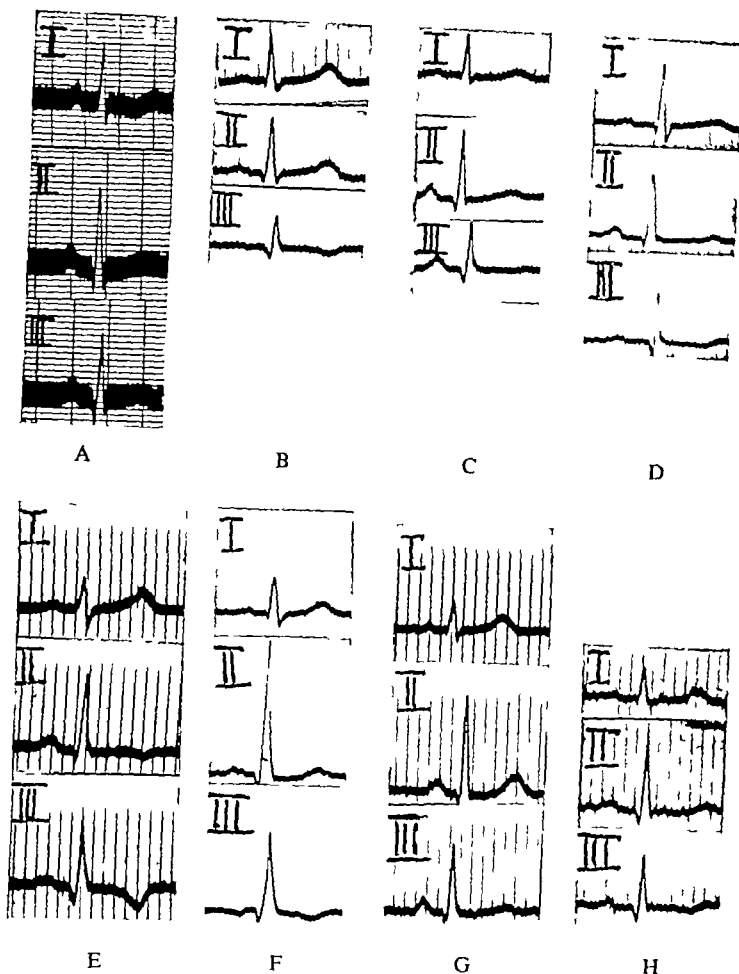


FIG 1—Electrocardiograms of the concordant type with equivocal Q deflections

- (A) Case 1 Man aged 45 posterior infarction
(see also Fig 4C)
(B) Case 2 Man aged 36 palpitation
(C) Case 3 Man aged 77 broncho pneumonia
(D) Case 4 Man aged 47 palpitation

- (E) Case 5 Man aged 47 posterior infarction
(F) Case 6 Man aged 31 left mammary pain
(G) Case 7 Woman aged 21 extrasystoles
(H) Case 8 Woman aged 57 thyroid toxæmia

found to precede the downward deflection which, in many tracings, was then revealed as an S wave. The absolute size of Q III and its size relative to the R waves in other leads, was the same in patients with and without infarction, a wide Q III was more frequent in infarction (Fig 2A and E) but also occurred in its absence (Fig 6B), a Q I was again recorded more often when there was no infarction.

Deep inspiration decreased the size of Q III in most patients with infarction and in normal controls

(Fig 5 and 6). Infrequently Q III was abolished by deep breathing in subjects without infarction (Fig 5C and 6B). In infarction Q I was usually absent or small. If in individual patients Q I was shown before infarction, it was reduced in amplitude or abolished after the attack (Fig 3) but when the cardiograms of all patients with posterior infarction were examined Q I was found in 14 out of 40 records. The presence or absence of Q I was, therefore, of no diagnostic significance.

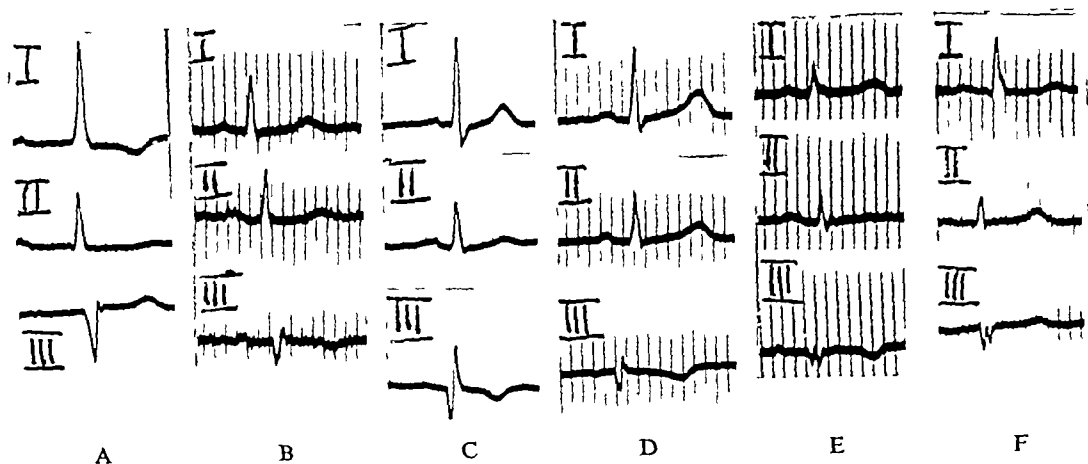


FIG 2—Electrocardiograms of the discordant type with equivocal Q deflections

- (A) Case 9 Man aged 67 hypertension and posterior infarction (ten years after the tracing shown in Fig 3A)
 (B) Case 10 Man aged 50 left mammary pain
 (C) Case 11 Woman aged 65 moderate hypertension

- (D) Case 12 Woman aged 37 extrasystoles
 (E) Case 13 Man aged 66 posterior infarction (one year after the tracing shown in Fig 3H)
 (F) Case 14 Woman aged 44 left mammary pain

II UNIPOLAR LIMB LEADS IN POSTERIOR CARDIAC INFARCTION

Unipolar limb leads were analysed in 18 cases of posterior infarction. The leads were taken with the Wilson technique and then designated VR, VL, VF. In other cases, the Goldberger method was adapted to the central terminal of Wilson by detaching the indifferent limb electrode from the limb under exploration, the leads were then called aVR, aVL, and aVF. The left leg lead showed a deep and wide Q (with an amplitude of 30 per cent or more of the amplitude of R in this lead and with a width of 0.04 second or more) when Q II and Q III were also characteristic (Fig 4). In cardiograms with discordant standard leads and equivocal Q waves, Q in the left leg lead was wide (Fig 6A), but not always deep (Fig 6D), in records of the concordant type with small Q waves in lead II and III, Q in the left leg lead was also small in width and size (Fig 5A and D). In all cases of infarction, the Q wave whatever its size, was deeper in lead III than in the left leg when allowance was made for augmentation in Goldberger leads. The voltage of Q in the left leg lead was reduced by deep inspiration.

All cases of posterior infarction showed an initial upright deflection in the left arm lead, it was more than 1 mm in amplitude and often broad or slurred in the ascending limb. A monophasic upright deflection was recorded in some cases, others showed an S wave, but a small R followed by a deep S was not

seen. In the right arm lead, the initial deflection was upright in 15 out of 18 cases and varied in amplitude from a small spike to a size of 4 mm, an R wave in the right arm would be expected to show as a Q wave in lead I, but in all 15 cases Q I was either absent or smaller than R in the right arm lead after allowance was made for augmentation. When right bundle branch block was added to posterior infarction, the unipolar limb leads conformed to the infarction pattern (Fig 4D).

III UNIPOLAR LIMB LEADS IN PATIENTS WITHOUT INFARCTION SHOWING CARDIOGRAMS WITH INCONCLUSIVE Q WAVES IN THE STANDARD LEADS

Equivocal Q waves in the standard leads did not signify infarction if the initial deflection in the left leg lead was upright (Fig 5C and 6B), in patients of this type, Q III was abolished by deep inspiration. In concordant cardiograms, a small Q in the left leg lead was as inconclusive as a small Q in lead II and III, it was not abolished by deep inspiration. Unlike the Q of infarction, Q VF was often of the same size as Q III (Fig 5E and F). In these cases, the left arm lead also differed from the infarction pattern and showed an R wave of small voltage. If Q II and Q III were equivocal and the cardiogram conformed to the infarction pattern in lead VF and VL, a significant deviation might yet be shown in the relation of Q I to the right arm lead: in this case, Q I was of the same size as R in VR (Fig 5B). In

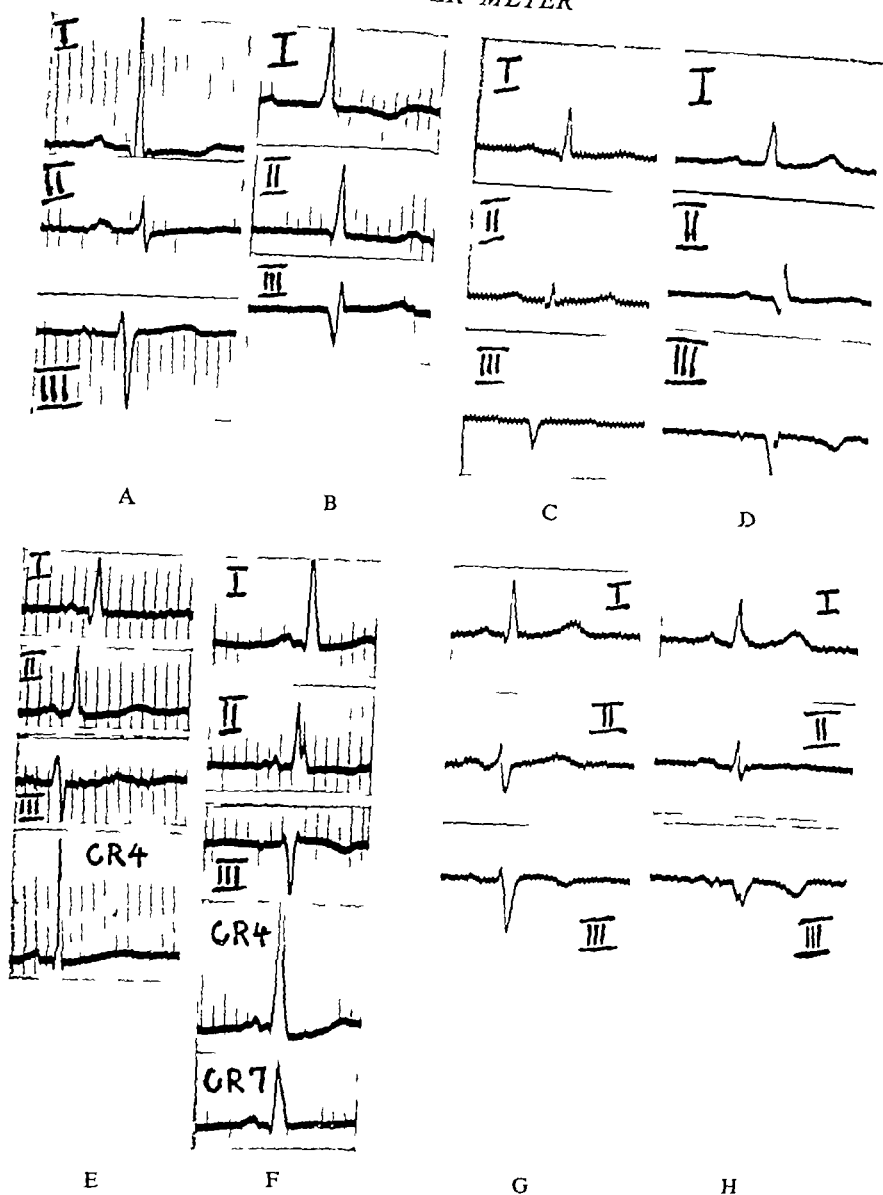


FIG 3—Electrocardiograms taken before and after posterior infarction

- (A) Case 9 Man aged 57 hypertension
 (B) The same two years after infarction
 (C) Case 15 Man aged 58 angina of effort
 (D) The same three weeks after infarction

- (E) Case 16 Woman aged 67 hypertension
 (F) The same on day of infarction
 (G) Case 13 Man aged 65 angina of effort
 (H) The same two months after infarction

discordant cardiograms, Q in the left leg lead was less wide than the Q of infarction, it differed from the Q VF seen in the concordant type of tracing in that it was deep yet smaller than Q III, even in the absence of infarction. An initial downward

deflection in the left arm lead occurred only in patients without an infarct (Fig 6E)

It was concluded that equivocal Q waves in the standard leads did not indicate posterior infarction if in unipolar limb leads the initial deflection was

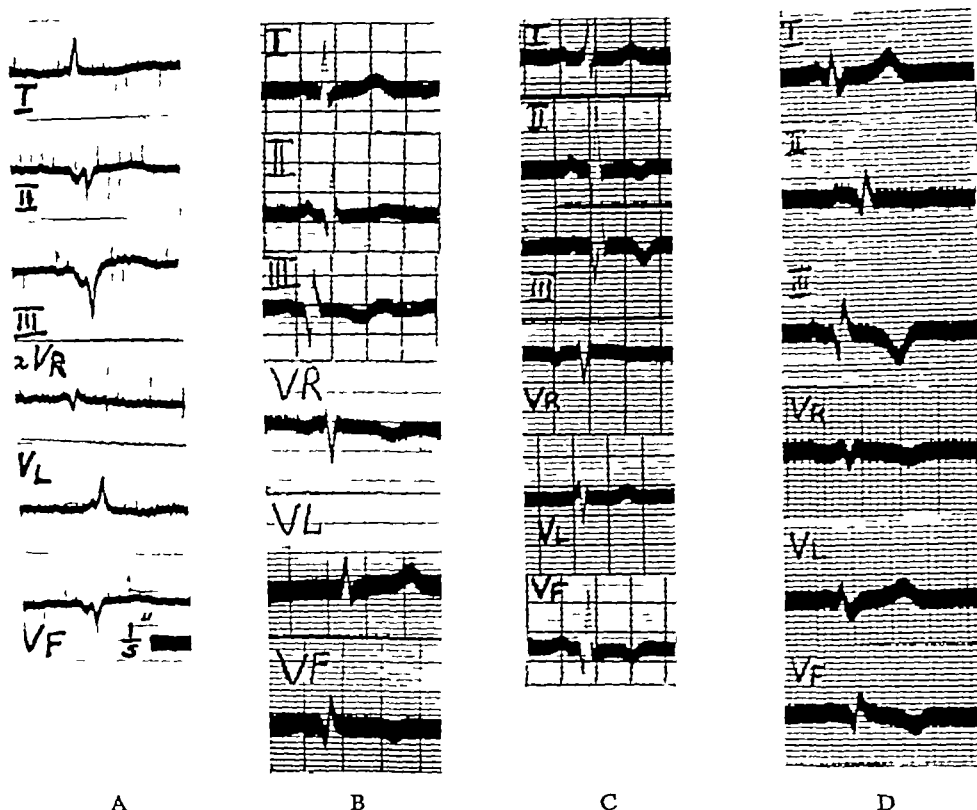


FIG 4—Unipolar limb leads in cardiograms with characteristic changes in the standard leads

(A) Case 17 Man aged 61 infarction three years ago
 (B) Case 18 Woman aged 39 infarction two years ago

(C) Case 1 Man aged 45 infarction three weeks ago (10 days after the tracing shown in Fig. 1A)
 (D) Case 19 Man aged 54 infarction nine weeks ago

upright in the left leg, or downward in the left arm, or if an initial R shown in the right arm was also recorded in lead I as a Q of similar size, a Q in the left leg did not represent infarction if it was of the same amplitude as Q III. When the standard leads were concordant, equivocal Q waves in lead II and III were suggestive of infarction if Q in the left leg lead was smaller than Q III and the right and left arm leads conformed to the infarction pattern. In discordant tracings, care had to be taken to ascertain that the downward deflection in lead III was a Q and not an S wave. A true Q III stood for infarction if Q in the left leg lead was 0.04 second or more in width: a deep Q, even when smaller than Q III, did not indicate an infarct in this type of tracing. If Q III was abolished by deep inspiration, absence of Q in lead VF could be inferred and infarction was unlikely; the effect of deep inspiration was inconclusive if it left Q III unchanged or reduced in size.

DISCUSSION

The preceding observations have shown the unipolar limb leads to be of value in the cardiographic diagnosis of posterior infarction. In the past, the unipolar left leg lead was singled out for examination in cases of posterior infarction, and the diagnostic significance of deep and wide Q deflections in this lead was stressed (Myers and Oren, 1945, Goldberger, 1947). Although such Q deflections were found in the present series of cases, difficulties arose because there were patients with infarction who exhibited a small and short Q, and subjects without infarction with deep Q waves in lead VF. When such equivocal cardiograms were studied, examination of the other unipolar limb leads was valuable.

On theoretical grounds, changes in the curves of the left and right arm must be expected with the development of a Q in the left leg lead due to

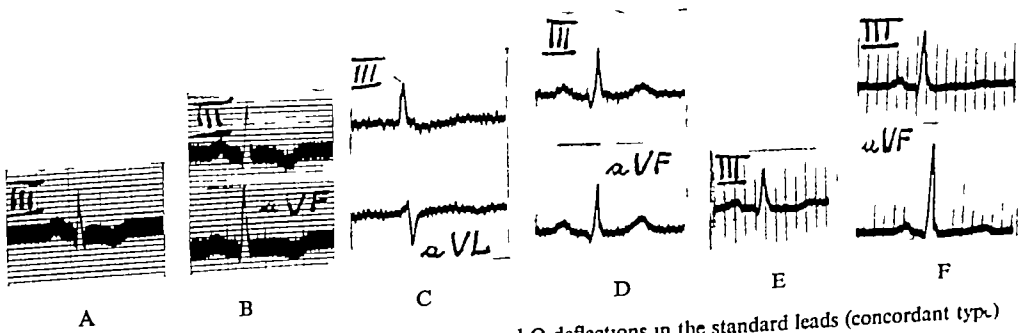
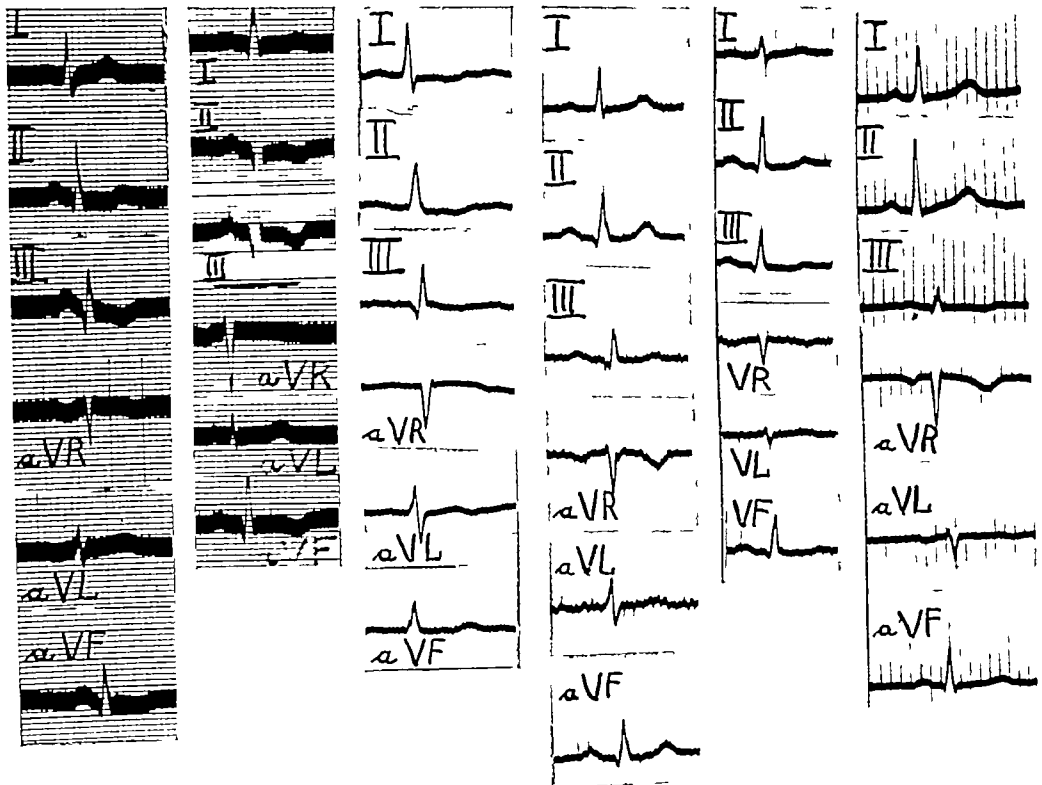


FIG 5 —Unipolar leads in cardiograms with equivocal Q deflections in the standard leads (concordant type.)
Lower row Leads taken on deep inspiration

- (A) Case 20 Man aged 49 infarction nine months ago
- (B) Case 21 Man aged 38 repetitive paroxysmal tachycardia
- (C) Case 22 Woman aged 36 mitral stenosis, aortic incompetence, auricular fibrillation
- (D) Case 23 Man aged 53 infarction one year ago
- (E) Case 24 Man aged 64 emphysema and bronchitis
- (F) Case 25 Woman aged 47 hypertension

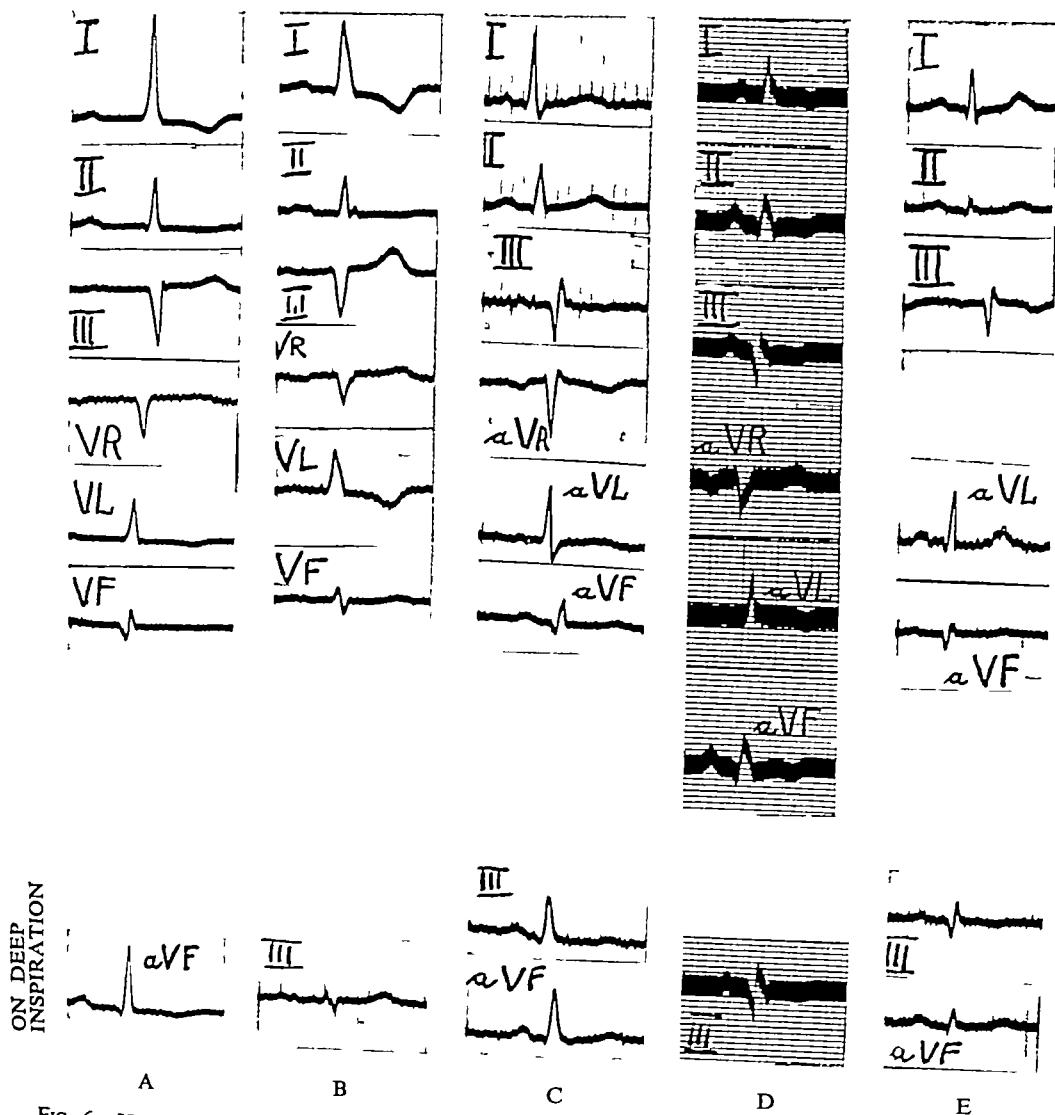


FIG 6—Unipolar leads in cardiograms with equivocal Q deflections in the standard leads (discordant type)

Lower row Leads taken on deep inspiration

(A) Case 9 Man aged 57 hypertension and posterior infarction (see also Fig 2A, 3A and B)

(B) Case 26 Man aged 63 hypertension

(C) Case 27 Man aged 57 hypertension

(D) Case 28 Man aged 49 infarction four weeks ago

(E) Case 29 Woman aged 69 moderate hypertension

infarction as the sum of the potentials in the three limbs leads must remain zero at any given time. Examination of the standard leads had shown that a Q I present before infarction is reduced in size or abolished by the infarct, since such Q waves usually derive from an initial negative deflection in the left arm lead, it was expected that the development of

early negativity in the left leg lead from infarction would cause early positivity in the left arm lead, and this has been confirmed by observation. As the upward deflection in the left arm lead is a counterpart of Q in the left leg lead, it follows that it must occur early in ventricular excitation and be synchronous with Q in the left leg lead. Lead I

measures the potential difference from the left to the right arm, a Q in the left arm or an R in the right arm will be recorded as a Q in lead I. Since early negativity in the left arm does not occur in these cases of posterior infarction, a Q in lead I can only be due to early positivity in the right arm, but the positive deflection in the left arm must partly or wholly counteract the formation of a Q in lead I from the positive deflection in the right arm, therefore, Q I is smaller than R in V R, or it is absent. Observation has confirmed this argument. In the absence of infarction, a Q in the left leg lead is not necessarily combined with a prominent R in the left arm lead: the initial deflection may be of low voltage (Fig 5E and F) or may be directed downward (Fig 6E). There is also the possibility that R in the left arm lead may not occur early in ventricular excitation: this can be recognized if the R wave does not interfere with the formation of a Q I from R in the right arm lead. Such a combination of events has been seen in one record (Fig 5B).

When the standard leads are concordant, infarction is likely if Q III is larger than Q in the left leg lead. This is an indirect method of observing the early upright deflection in the left arm which reinforces the downward direction of Q III initiated by Q in the left leg, in the absence of infarction, the small amplitude of R in the left arm prevents this reinforcement of Q III. Discordant cardiograms usually show a prominent R in the left arm lead, hence Q III is larger than Q in VF also in the absence of infarction. Deep inspiration, by causing a shift of the long axis of the heart away from the left arm, reduces the amplitude of R in VL (Fig 5C), it therefore abolishes the Q waves which are not due to a Q in the left leg lead.

In the left leg lead, a Q of infarction may be small in size and duration in concordant tracings. It is wide though not necessarily deep in cardiograms of the discordant type, when a wide and deep Q III is also shown, but a wide and deep Q in lead III alone does not stand for infarction because it also occurs from left ventricular hypertrophy (Myers and Oren (1945), also Fig 6B).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The electrocardiograms of 40 patients with posterior infarction were examined for modifications of the QRS complex indicating infarction, there were 7 cases with inconclusive Q waves in lead III, or II and III, and they closely resembled cardiograms from subjects without infarction. In concordant

tracings, uncertainty was caused by small Q waves in leads II and III, in the discordant type, difficulties arose when Q was deep, or wide and deep, in lead III, and small or absent in lead II, care had to be taken to examine each beat in lead III to ascertain that the downward deflection in this lead was not in fact an S wave. A Q wave in lead I was more often seen in normal subjects than after infarction, but this was of no diagnostic significance, in the individual patient, such a Q wave shown before infarction was reduced in amplitude or abolished by the infarct.

Unipolar limb leads were examined in 18 cases of posterior infarction with Q waves in the standard leads. The left leg lead showed a Q deflection in all cardiograms, it was deep and wide if typical Q waves were seen in leads II and III. When the standard leads were discordant with a wide and deep Q III, Q in the left leg lead was wide, but not always deep. When the standard leads were concordant with inconclusive Q waves in leads II and III, Q was also small in the left leg. In all records of plain posterior infarction, Q III was larger than Q in the left leg, the left arm lead showed an initial upright deflection of more than 1 mm, in most, but not all records, an initial upright deflection was also shown in the right arm, and this did not appear as a Q wave of the same size in lead I.

From an examination of unipolar limb leads in subjects without infarction it was concluded that equivocal Q waves in the standard leads did not indicate plain posterior infarction if the initial deflection was upright in the left leg, or downward in the left arm, or if an initial R shown in the right arm was also recorded in lead I as a Q of similar size. A Q wave in the left leg lead did not represent infarction if it was of the same amplitude as Q III. When the standard leads were concordant, equivocal Q waves in leads II and III were suggestive of infarction if Q in the left leg lead was smaller than Q III and if right and left arm leads conformed to the infarction pattern. In discordant tracings, the width of the Q wave in the left leg lead was significant, a deep Q wave, even when smaller than Q III, did not indicate an infarct. The effect of deep inspiration on the Q wave in lead III and lead VF was also examined, if Q III was abolished by deep inspiration, absence of Q in lead VF could be inferred.

In the discussion the electrical events leading to the observed cardiographic patterns were analysed.

I wish to record my gratitude to Dr William Evans for much advice and encouragement received from him.

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TRANSPOSITION OF THE AORTA AND PULMONARY ARTERY DEMONSTRATED BY ANGIOCARDIOGRAPHY

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Complete transposition of the great vessels is one of the less common congenital anomalies. Survival after birth is dependent upon the presence of some communication between the right and left sides of the heart that will permit crossing of the greater and lesser circulations and enable venous blood to reach the lungs.

The case described below is of particular interest because of the absence of diagnostic criteria afforded by the usual methods of clinical and radiological examination.

CASE REPORT

D T, aged 5 years, had been cyanosed since birth. He became very breathless on the slightest exertion and he frequently assumed the squatting position. There was no history of rubella during the mother's pregnancy.

Physical examination. The child was undersized, with marked cyanosis which was of equal intensity in both the upper and lower extremities. There was dyspnoea at rest and marked clubbing of the fingers and toes. Examination of the cardiovascular system showed bulging of the præcordium and slight general cardiac enlargement. A harsh systolic murmur was heard down the left side of the sternum, and there was a pure pulmonary second sound. There was no thrill and no diastolic murmur. The femoral pulses and blood pressure were normal, and the lungs were clear.

The blood count showed a considerable degree of polycythæmia. The figures with the normal values at the age of 5 years for comparison were as follows: hæmoglobin 21 grams (12.6), red blood corpuscles 7.9 million per c mm (4.6), leucocytes 12,000 per c mm, mean corpuscular diameter

7.3 μ (7.4), packed cell volume 63 per cent (37), mean corpuscular volume 80 c μ (80), mean corpuscular hæmoglobin concentration 33 per cent (34).

Cardiography. Using augmented unipolar leads in addition to standard leads, was performed and has been interpreted according to the criteria of Goldberger (1947) (Fig 1). The standard limb leads show high voltage complexes and marked right axis deviation. The P waves in leads I and II and VF are of increased amplitude and duration (lead I, duration 0.11 sec, height 2 mm; lead II, duration 0.12 sec, height 3 mm; lead VF, duration 0.11 sec, height 2.5 mm). The heart is vertical in position, since the unipolar left leg lead resembles lead V6 and therefore faces the epicardial surface of the left ventricle. There is also clockwise rotation of the heart round its long axis, because the unipolar left arm lead faces the cavity of the right ventricle. VL shows a small R wave and a large S wave and a negative T wave and the præcordial leads show RS patterns.

There is no definite evidence of right ventricular strain, but this may be deduced from the presence of auricular hypertrophy. Goldberger states that if any of the unipolar extremity leads show P waves with duration of 0.11 sec or more and an amplitude of 2.5 mm or more, auricular hypertrophy may be suspected.

Radiography. A postero-anterior radiogram of the chest showed an enlarged heart with a prominent pulmonary conus and full root shadows, the lung fields showed congestive changes (Fig 3).

Fluoroscopy and barium swallow revealed an enlarged heart, with an enlarged pulmonary conus, and very dilated pulmonary vessels with marked pulsation. The aorta appeared to be dextroposed.

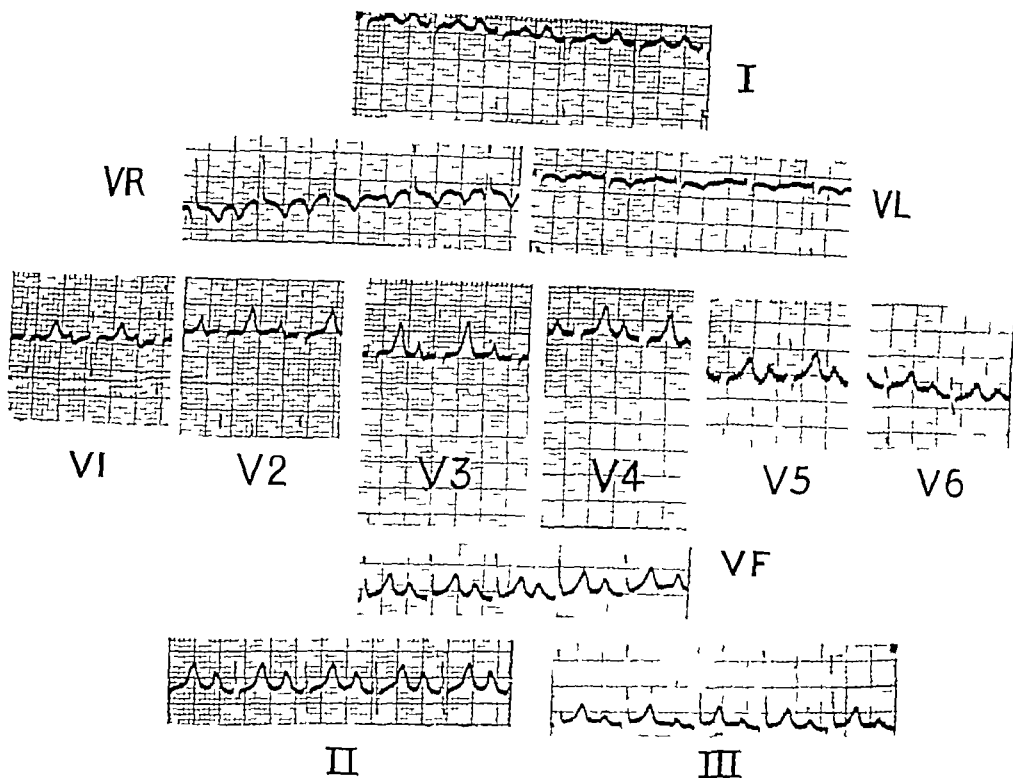


FIG 1—Standard and unipolar lead electrocardiograms. The heart is vertical with clockwise rotation round its long axis. Right auricular strain and indirect evidence of right ventricular strain are present. Limb lead 1 mv = 1 cm. Precordial leads 1 mv = 1.5 cm.

ANGIOCARDIOGRAPHY

Technique Angiocardiography was carried out under general anaesthesia. Two injections of 40 ml 70 per cent pyelosil were made into the antecubital vein of the right arm. In the first instance the patient was X-rayed in the right posterior oblique position lying supine, and in the second instance in the antero-posterior position lying on his side.

A rotating serial cassette changer was used with the following radiographic factors: 200 MA 72–74 KVP, 1/20th second exposure, at a target film distance of 36 inches. In both antero-posterior and oblique positions six exposures were made at one-second intervals starting at one second after the injection.

Oblique radiograms On the two-second film (Fig 3) good filling of the superior vena cava will be noted. The right auricle is clearly outlined and the reflux of contrast medium into the inferior vena cava is seen. The right ventricle is filled and enlarged and the interventricular septum

is convex posteriorly. The ascending aorta and arch are outlined and a faint trace of contrast medium is visible in the left side of the heart just posterior to the right auricle. The pulmonary artery is outlined very faintly.

On the three-second film (Fig 4) the right auricle is still outlined and the ventricle is more clearly shown, as well as the ascending aorta, aortic arch, and descending aorta. The innominate and external and internal carotid arteries are also outlined. The left auricle and ventricle are fairly well delineated and the pulmonary artery can now be seen clearly demonstrated as a second arch below the aorta. On the subsequent films most of the contrast medium is seen scattered throughout the pulmonary vascular bed and the cardiac chambers are not clearly differentiated.

Antero-posterior radiograms In the two-second film (Fig 5A and B) the right auricle and ventricle are clearly demonstrated. The ascending aorta is seen to arise from the right ventricle. The



FIG 2 —Postero-anterior 6-ft film of the chest

innominate artery, the right carotid and the internal carotid arteries are shown and some contrast medium has entered the left ventricle. On the three-second film (Fig 6) the left side of the heart is now filled with contrast medium. The aorta is still shown, the pulmonary artery and the main pulmonary branches are partly demonstrated. As in the case of the oblique radiograms subsequent films did not reveal any details of the cardiac

chambers as most of the contrast medium had entered the pulmonary vascular bed and partly left the heart.

The radiographic examination quite clearly demonstrated the transposition of the aorta and pulmonary artery. The septal defect itself is not shown, but the rapid filling of the left side of the heart on the two- and three-second films is very suggestive of the presence of such a defect. It is



FIG 3 —Angiocardiogram at 2 seconds Patient in the right posterior oblique position The right auricle and ventricle are demonstrated as well as the pulmonary artery and aorta
 (B) (Inset) Diagram of Fig 4A
 SVC = Superior vena cava
 IVC = Inferior vena cava
 RA = Right auricle
 RV = Right ventricle
 LA = Left auricle
 PA = Pulmonary artery
 Ao = Aorta



FIG 4—Angiocardiogram of the patient in the oblique position taken at 3 seconds. Pulmonary artery and aorta are clearly demonstrated.

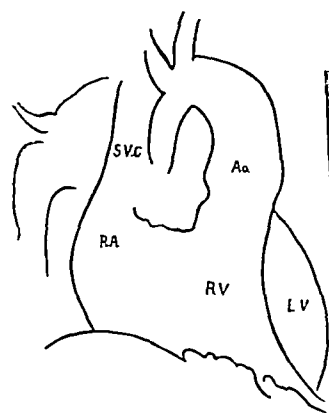
(B) (Inset) SVC = Superior vena cava
RA = Right auricle
RV = Right ventricle

PA = Pulmonary artery
LA = Left auricle
Ao = Aorta



FIG 5—Angiocardiogram at 2 seconds of the patient in the antero posterior position. Right auricle and ventricle are clearly demonstrated. The aorta is seen to rise from the right ventricle.

(B) (Inset) SVC = Superior vena cava
 RA = Right auricle
 RV = Right ventricle
 LV = Left ventricle
 Ao = Aorta



B

A

FIG 6—Angiocardiogram, at 3 seconds, of the patient in the antero-posterior position. The right ventricle, aorta and the left ventricle are outlined

(B) (Inset) S V C = Superior vena cava
 R A = Right auricle
 R V = Right ventricle
 L V = Left ventricle
 A o = Aorta

impossible to decide if this defect is auricular or ventricular

Cardiac catheterization was not undertaken as it was felt that it would yield no further useful information

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

The history of cyanosis from birth and the physical signs in this case suggested either transposition of the aorta and pulmonary artery with an associated widely patent septum, tricuspid atresia, single ventricle, or Fallot's tetrad with extreme pulmonary stenosis. Electrocardiography did not reveal the gross right or left heart strain that would have been expected in pulmonary and tricuspid atresia respectively. Taussig (1945) describes a characteristic cardiac contour on fluoroscopic examination in cases of transposition of the great vessels. Since the aorta lies further to the right and in front and the pulmonary artery further to the left and behind, the shadow at the base of the heart is the reverse of normal, being wider in the left anterior oblique view and narrower in the antero-posterior view. In the latter position the shadow of the pulmonary conus is usually absent and a rhythmical change in size of the right auricle and ventricle, due to frequent reversal of the shunt, is seen. In our case no such distinctive contour or rhythmical alteration was observed, and a pulsating shadow noted in the region of the pulmonary conus was proved by angiocardiology to be the aorta.

DISCUSSION

Complete transposition of the aorta and pulmonary artery may be accompanied by patencies of the normal fetal pathways, the foramen ovale, and the ductus arteriosus, or by additional septal defects. As Taussig (1947) points out, the larger the communication between the two sides of the heart, the longer will be the period of survival. When the ductus arteriosus or foramen ovale alone are patent, survival for more than a few hours or

days does not occur, but infants who in addition have widely patent interventricular septa may survive for much longer. Taussig considers that even in cases where both septa are widely patent survival is rarely possible beyond the age of eighteen months. Hanlon and Blalock (1948) collected 123 cases of complete transposition with associated abnormalities and found the average duration of life was nineteen months. Six patients lived ten years or longer, but the average age at death in the other 117 patients was five and a half months. Twelve cases had an interventricular septal defect without other abnormalities and these patients lived for a mean period of four years and one month. The association of a patent foramen ovale with patent interventricular septum (19 cases) increased the survival to four years nine months, but the association of other defects decreased the duration of life. Of Kato's (1930) 86 cases 16 had defects of both septa, the average survival time of these 16 being five and a half years. But the inclusion of 2 patients aged nineteen and fifty-six years respectively among these 16 cases presents a falsely optimistic picture. It appears therefore that complete transposition is unlikely to be compatible with survival after the age of four years, even when a patent interventricular septum is present.

SUMMARY

A case of complete transposition of the aorta and pulmonary artery is described in a child five years of age showing intense cyanosis and great breathlessness on exertion. The condition was clearly revealed by angiocardiology and could not have been detected by the usual clinical and radiological methods. A survey of the literature shows that survival beyond the age of four and a half years is very rare in this condition.

We wish to thank Professor R. S. Illingworth for permission to publish the details of this case, Dr. J. Wilkie and Dr. C. W. Lawson for their help and co-operation, and Mr. J. Coombs for technical assistance.

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THE RESULTS OF MEDICAL AND SURGICAL TREATMENT OF ESSENTIAL HYPERTENSION

BY

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For a variety of reasons it is difficult to evaluate the influence of therapeutic procedures in essential hypertension, the peculiar feature of which is an elevation of the diastolic blood pressure. Patients present individual problems and do not readily adapt themselves to precise categories and strict comparisons. Furthermore, while hypertension commonly runs a prolonged course over the years and shows of itself spontaneous fluctuations from day to day, yet for reasons unknown the intensity of the disease may abruptly increase and the pace towards a fatal termination quicken with unexpected suddenness. We have no measure of vascular vulnerability with which to compare one patient with another.

A feature of the disease, even in the same subject, is its variability. Symptoms pass through phases of activity and seldom correlate with the blood pressure readings. Arteriolar tone is not a fixed quantity. The diastolic pressure is constantly changing, occasionally falling to surprisingly low levels for no obvious reasons. It is remarkable how, after many months of intermittent disablement by headache or giddiness in middle life, a symptom-free stage may ultimately be attained in later years without, however, much significant alteration in the blood pressure. These natural variations and remissions hinder reliable therapeutic deductions in the individual patient. Nervous and emotional factors are difficult to assess and it is well recognized that the hypertensive patient is highly susceptible to suggestion—particularly when it is reinforced by the sympathetic care and understanding of an enthusiastic adviser. Psychological factors may distort the picture and obscure the basic facts.

By the study of a group of patients over a sufficiently long period the fallacies attributable to the

inconsequential fluctuations of pressure and spontaneous remissions in symptoms are minimized to some extent. All our patients were under the care and supervision of the same observers accustomed to the same surroundings, the same methods of clinical investigation and familiar with the ways of the examiners, they were thereby exposed to few extraneous factors liable to influence their nervous tension adversely. By the adoption of an attitude of benevolent neutrality, psychological influences were kept as uniform as possible from patient to patient. Each patient reported at intervals and was assessed by the same observers.

Many attempts have been made to judge the efficacy of the surgical attack on hypertension (Adson *et al.*, 1934, 1936, Allen and Adson, 1940, Smithwick, 1940, 1944, and Grimsom, 1947). Inadequate standards for comparison have proved a stumbling-block. Not infrequently an author has assembled two groups for comparison, one medically and the other surgically treated. To some extent the conclusions are invalidated by a comparison of the author's series of surgically treated patients with a medical group investigated by someone else necessarily employing slightly different standards, techniques, and methods. For example, Wagener and Keith (1939) report on a series of medically treated patients with hypertension and their results have been used by several surgical authors for comparison with their own cases. Flaxman (1944) describes a medical series of his own compared with the surgical experiences of Peet *et al.* (1940), Hammarström (1947) compares his surgical cases with a series of non-operated cases described by Bechgaard (1946), and so on. The general consensus of opinion is that sympathectomy is of value particularly in younger patients before the development of serious coronary or renal disease.

* Working under the tenure of a Scholarship awarded by the Grocers' Company of London.

Hammarstrom (1949) believes that in the severer cases with retinal exudation life expectancy is increased in a sympathectomized group as compared with similar patients treated by medical means

THE PROBLEM

The problem under consideration is the evaluation of the results obtained by medical and surgical means in the treatment of essential diastolic hypertension. This has involved a review of the progress of a large number of patients of whom some were surgically and some medically treated. The results are considered in general as well as in certain particular details. In the investigations now to be described, both 'medical' and 'surgical' groups have been examined and assessed by the same doctors, thus ensuring, it is hoped, more constant standards of comparison and hence more accurate conclusions. Surgery was first employed by us nine years ago. All the cases subsequently sympathectomized have been followed-up and form the basis of the present study. The control medical group dates back to five years ago.

THE MATERIAL

The material on which our investigations are based consists of 151 cases of essential hypertension of whom 96 were treated by medical measures and 55 by surgery.

The investigations common to all the patients started on their admission to hospital. In general arteriosclerosis, angina, congestive heart failure, poor renal function, and an age in excess of 50 years, with few exceptions, were usually regarded as contraindications to surgical intervention, but minor cerebral episodes, even transient hemiplegias, did not exclude the possibility of surgical help. Changing standards of selection for surgery have proved of help to us in the construction of the two groups—surgical and medical—for the purposes of the present analysis of the results obtained.

When surgery was not employed the medical measures recommended were those in common use, including in the first instance a rest in bed in the hospital for two or three weeks, and thereafter some limitations in activities, a reduction in body-weight when necessary, the administration of simple sedatives such as phenobarbitone and analgesics from time to time, the use of the head-up bed for the prevention of morning headache, and venesection very occasionally. Most emphasis was put on reduced activities and the avoidance of fatigue. In the surgical group Smithwick's (1940) method of lumbo-dorsal sympathectomy was employed in 75 per cent of the 55 patients and lumbar sympathectomy in the remainder treated several years earlier.

The medically treated group of 96 cases consisted of 76 benign (that is with retinal changes less than papilloedema) and 20 malignant cases (that is with papilloedema accompanied or unaccompanied by other retinal changes), the surgically treated group of 55 was composed of 45 benign and 10 malignant cases.

The 'benign medical' group consisted of 76 cases, 17 males and 59 females, varying in age from 30 to 71, the average age being 47 years, the duration of the follow-up period varied from six months to five years. The 'benign surgical' group was composed of 45 cases, 18 males and 27 females, varying in age from 19 to 60, the average age being 40 years, the follow-up periods varied from three months to eight and a half years.

The 'malignant medical' group contained 20 cases, 14 males and 6 females, varying in age from 31 to 66, the average age being 50 years, the follow-up periods ranged from one month to one year. The 'malignant surgical' group was composed of 10 cases, 5 males and 5 females, whose ages ranged from 36 to 61, the average age being 46 years. Follow-up periods varied from three months to three years.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

Assessment of patients before and after treatment. The same routine of tests and investigations was applied to every patient in the series before treatment and at intervals after treatment. The methods employed consisted of a careful history to exclude any primary renal disease, endocrine disorder or other cause for the hypertension. Particular attention was devoted to a routine physical examination with special note of the following points:

(1) Assessment of retinal grade according to the method of Wagener and Keith (1939) into four classes—1, 2, 3, and 4 (Normal is graded 0, papilloedema is graded 4).

(2) Assessment of cardiac efficiency graded according to the following method: A, normal; B, slight impairment during exertion; C, considerable impairment during exertion; and D, impairment at rest.

(3) Assessment of renal efficiency, according to results of the urea concentration range (Cameron 1934) or the urea clearance tests (Peters and Van Slyke 1946) thus: A, very good; B, good; C, fair; and D, poor.

(4) Assessment of severity of symptoms thus: A, symptom free; B, moderate symptoms but fit for work; C, severe symptoms, unfit for work; and D, dead.

(5) Assessment of the diastolic pressure. As a measure of the peripheral resistance the diastolic

pressure is recognized as a more reliable indication of the severity of the hypertensive process than the systolic level. Furthermore, the diastolic pressure has a smaller range of fluctuation than the systolic and is less susceptible to unpredictable excursions. For comparative purposes the diastolic pressure therefore yields the more reliable figure and we have made use of it in our assessment. The basic figures were taken when the patient, already thoroughly familiar with the method, had rested for at least 10 to 15 minutes recumbent on a couch. It must be realized that this reading was not taken until the end of the examination, by which time it was ensured that the patient was adjusted to his surroundings and completely at ease in a quiet restful room with which he was familiar. The diastolic pressure is recorded in mm of mercury for each patient and not graded A, B, C, or D as for the other observations listed above.

During the clinical examination note was made of the physique and nutrition of the patient, the pattern of the electrocardiogram, and the heart-size measured radiologically by the method of Ungerleider and Gubner (1942). These latter observations however, had not all been made in every case before treatment, and therefore were discarded in the statistical analysis of the results.

The construction of matched groups for comparison of results. The second part of the investigation consisted in dividing the patients into matched groups for the purpose of comparing the results of the two methods of treatment. As the hypertensive process as a rule runs a milder course in the female (Bechgaard 1946, Rogers and Palmer, 1946-7) the surgical cases were divided on a sex basis. Each of these male and female groups was subdivided into smaller groups composed as far as possible of persons of similar ages and with similar grading in the tests listed above. This procedure resulted in the surgical cases being divided into 11 female and 8 male groups, as shown in Table I.

Next each 'medical' patient's results were carefully scrutinized and he was placed in a medical group corresponding to the 'surgical' group whose criteria he best fitted. Those medical cases who fitted exactly were termed "first-class comparisons", those who fitted well, but deviated in one degree in any criterion other than retinal grade were termed "second-class comparisons", those who fitted less well, but better into that group than into any other were called "third-class comparisons" and were excluded from the statistical assessment of results.

There now existed 8 male and 11 female groups each consisting of the original surgical cases and those medical cases that matched them, the matching

TABLE I
COMPOSITION OF GROUPS OF SURGICALLY TREATED PATIENTS

Group	Retinal grade	Cardiac efficiency grade	Renal efficiency grade
<i>Males</i>			
1	0	A	A
2	I	A	A
3 A	II	A	A-B
3 B	II	B	A-B
4	III	C	C
5 A	IV	A	B
5 B	IV	C	C
5 C	IV	D	D
<i>Females</i>			
1 A	0	A	A
1 B	0	A	B
1 C	0	B	A
2 A	I	A	A
2 B	I	A	B
2 C	I	C	C
3 A	II	A	A
3 B	II	A	A
4	III	A-B	C
5 A	IV	B	B
5 B	IV	C	C

being done on the basis of their pre-treatment investigations. The addition of the medical cases as an "extension" to each surgical group caused no alteration in the description of any group as given in the above tables, since the third-class comparisons (which might have disturbed the homogeneity of a group) had been discarded. The final constitution of each "surgical-plus-medical" group which are the units on which the actual work of comparison and statistical analysis was done is presented in Table II. Amongst the males groups 1 to 4, inclusive and amongst the females groups 1A to 4, represent cases of benign hypertension. Malignant hypertension is composed of groups 5B and 5C male, and groups 5A and 5B female.

Of the total of 23 male surgical cases, 18 were benign and 5 malignant, and of the total of 27 medical cases used for the analysis (1st+2nd class) 13 were benign and 14 malignant. Of the total of 32 female surgical cases, 27 were benign and 5 malignant, of the total of 47 female medical cases (1st class+2nd class comparisons) 42 were benign and 5 were malignant (Table II).

The third class comparisons numbered in all 22, 4 males and 18 females. Of the 4 males, all were benign cases, of the 18 females, 17 were benign, and 1 malignant.

It is customary to consider the adverse influence of obesity on the course of hypertension. It has

TABLE II

COMPOSITION OF THE MATCHED GROUPS ON WHICH THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS IS BASED THE THIRD CLASS COMPARISONS ARE DISCARDED

Group	No of surgical cases	No of medical cases for comparison		
		1st class	2nd class	3rd class
<i>Males</i>				
1	3	3	—	—
2	5	1	2	—
3 A	6	1	1	—
3 B	2	2	1	3
4	2	2	—	1
5 A	3	4	3	—
5 B	1	2	—	—
5 C	1	1	4	—
Total	23	16	11	4
<i>Females</i>				
1 A	3	4	—	—
1 B	1	3	3	4
1 C	3	1	4	2
2 A	2	2	—	—
2 B	4	2	2	—
2 C	7	3	2	2
3 A	3	3	2	—
3 B	3	3	4	6
4	1	2	2	3
5 A	4	3	—	—
5 B	1	2	—	1
Total	32	28	19	18

been noted by many writers (e.g. Hunter and Rogers, 1923) that since an excess of body weight has an adverse bearing on the subject's expectation of life, it ought to operate even more severely to shorten the life span of the patient with hypertension. Bechgaard (1946), however, notes that contrary to expectation in his series of 1000 hypertensives which contained 311 obese patients, the latter had if anything a lower mortality than the others.

In our small series there were 7 cases of obesity amongst the male surgical patients (5 benign and 2 malignant) and 4 amongst the male medically treated cases (3 benign and 1 malignant). In the females, of those surgically treated, 6 benign and 2 malignant were obese, whilst of the medical series, 19 were markedly overweight. Obesity however had no relation to the mortality rate. Of the 7 "medical" deaths in the benign group only one was an obese individual, the remainder were under average weight. Of the 5 patients who died in the surgically treated group, 3 were under-weight and one average. Obesity did not correlate with any significant deterioration in the course of the follow-up. In fact in the most severe (malignant) hyper-

tensive cases, loss of weight was noted in 65 per cent of the medical and 30 per cent of the surgical cases and in the medical group it was an accompaniment of their rapid deterioration. Body weight is therefore disregarded in our groupings.

The adoption of matched groups is one which should meet Smithwick's (1948) requirements when he states "Further comparison of surgically and non-surgically treated cases divided into similar sub-groups in which the most important variables are held constant is desirable. Until this can be done the influence and relative merits of various therapeutic measures upon the course of hypertensive vascular disease cannot be evaluated with certainty." Although the numbers in this investigation are small, our statistical colleague (B.W.) is satisfied that they are sufficiently large to provide information that is significant.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

It must be emphasized strongly that the reliability of this analysis depends entirely on the validity of the grouping and matching of the cases described above. In a clinical trial it is necessary that the allocation of cases to experimental and control groups shall be free from bias in respect of severity of symptoms, age, sex, or any other circumstance likely to have a bearing on prognosis. This is usually contrived by a deliberately planned experiment in which the cases are allotted to one or other form of treatment by a designed process. In the present investigation, however, this was not done: each patient was given surgical or medical treatment as seemed appropriate without strict regard to the possible future use of the cases in a statistical comparison.

It has been possible, however, owing to such factors as changing standards as to indications for operation, patients declining operation, and so on, to match our surgical groups with medical, on the basis of the observations made during the patient's first stay in hospital and thus the series of cases has been converted retrospectively into a properly controlled experiment to the best of our ability. All the patients had been under detailed observation in the wards of the hospital and had submitted to the same routine.

In the statistical analysis each group was taken separately and the "surgical" cases compared with the 1st and 2nd class "medical" cases therein. Six criteria are available for statistical evaluation: these can be divided into two sections. In the first the observations made at periodic re-examinations of those patients who survived are considered particularly in regard to the following factors: (1) retinal grade, (2) cardiac efficiency, (3) renal

efficiency, (4) symptom grade, and (5) diastolic blood pressure. The second part is a consideration of the incidence of deaths in relation to sex, severity of symptoms and method of treatment.

COMPARISON BY SYMPTOMS AND SIGNS

In the analysis under this heading, the change was noted, for each patient, between the initial value or grade and that found at a specified time after treatment, in each of the items noted above. The choice of the time interval is of some importance. It is desirable to use as long a period as possible, to give ample time for the results of treatment to become manifest, a long interval also helps to reduce bias, by eliminating from the analysis all patients who die soon after the initial examination, and who therefore may have been too advanced in the disease to benefit from treatment. It also serves to minimize any effects attributable to psychological betterment and unintentional suggestion. On the other hand, increasing the time interval involves omission from the comparison of all the more recent cases. The best compromise is to base the main comparison on the difference between the initial findings and those at the examination most nearly coinciding with the first anniversary of the commencement of treatment, or of sympathectomy.

Data on change of symptom-grade are available

for 47 surgical cases (20 male and 27 female) and 42 medical cases (11 male and 31 female), a total of 89 patients. Observations on criteria 1, 2, 3, and 5 (see p 288) are also on record for most of these cases. Comparisons of changes after three years were also made, but the number of cases was only 41, the findings for the one-year and three-year periods are fully concordant.

Criteria 2, 3, and 4 are on the ABC scale, an arbitrary value of unity being given to each successive step. Retinal grade is 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4, as described earlier, blood pressure differences were measured quantitatively in mm Hg. In each group of patients the average change in the medically and surgically treated cases was calculated with respect to each criterion, and the probability that the observed difference, if any, might be attributable to chance fluctuations. The combined probability that all the differences with respect to treatment might be chance effects were then calculated. Where this probability is less than 1/20 the treatments are taken as giving significantly different results.

Results of analysis The main findings are as follows.

(1) In the *symptom grading*, the surgical cases show a great and decisive superiority over the medical. The details for a 12-months interval are shown in Table III. A positive value in the last

TABLE III
MEAN CHANGES IN SYMPTOM GRADE AFTER ONE YEAR

Group	Surgical cases		Medical cases		Difference between means*
	No	Mean improvement	No	Mean improvement	
<i>Males</i>					
1	3	0.67 grade	0	—	—
2	4	2.00	2	0.50	1.50
3 A	5	1.80	2	0.50	1.30
3 B	2	2.00	3	0.67	1.33
4	2	1.50	1	1.00	0.50
5 A	3	1.33	0	—	—
5 B	1	2.00	1	-1.00	3.00
<i>Females</i>					
1 A	3	1.33	4	0.50	0.83
1 B	1	1.00	3	0.33	0.67
1 C	3	2.00	3	0.00	2.00
2 A	1	2.00	1	1.00	1.00
2 B	3	1.00	4	0.25	0.75
2 C	5	1.20	2	0.50	0.70
3 A	3	0.67	5	0.20	0.47
3 B	2	2.00	6	0.33	1.67
4	1	0.00	2	1.00	-1.00
5 A	4	1.50	1	0.00	1.50
5 B	1	1.00	0	—	—
Total	47	1.43	42	0.38	1.05

* A positive value in the last column indicates that the surgical cases had a better result than the medical cases.

* A positive value in the last column indicates that the surgical response was more favourable than the medical. The relief of symptoms one year after treatment in the surgical group is on the average superior to the medical.

TABLE II

COMPOSITION OF THE MATCHED GROUPS ON WHICH THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS IS BASED THE THIRD CLASS COMPARISONS ARE DISCARDED

Group	No of surgical cases	No of medical cases for comparison		
		1st class	2nd class	3rd class
<i>Males</i>				
1	3	3	—	—
2	5	1	2	—
3 A	6	1	1	—
3 B	2	2	1	3
4	2	2	—	1
5 A	3	4	3	—
5 B	1	2	—	—
5 C	1	1	4	—
Total	23	16	11	4
<i>Females</i>				
1 A	3	4	—	—
1 B	1	3	3	4
1 C	3	1	4	2
2 A	2	2	—	—
2 B	4	2	2	—
2 C	7	3	2	2
3 A	3	3	2	—
3 B	3	3	4	6
4	1	2	2	3
5 A	4	3	—	—
5 B	1	2	—	1
Total	32	28	19	18

been noted by many writers (e.g. Hunter and Rogers, 1923) that since an excess of body weight has an adverse bearing on the subject's expectation of life, it ought to operate even more severely to shorten the life span of the patient with hypertension. Bechgaard (1946), however, notes that contrary to expectation in his series of 1000 hypertensives which contained 311 obese patients, the latter had if anything a lower mortality than the others.

In our small series there were 7 cases of obesity amongst the male surgical patients (5 benign and 2 malignant) and 4 amongst the male medically treated cases (3 benign and 1 malignant). In the females, of those surgically treated, 6 benign and 2 malignant were obese, whilst of the medical series, 19 were markedly overweight. Obesity however had no relation to the mortality rate. Of the 7 "medical" deaths in the benign group only one was an obese individual, the remainder were under average weight. Of the 5 patients who died in the surgically treated group, 3 were under-weight and one average. Obesity did not correlate with any significant deterioration in the course of the follow-up. In fact in the most severe (malignant) hyper-

tensive cases, loss of weight was noted in 65 per cent of the medical and 30 per cent of the surgical cases and in the medical group it was an accompaniment of their rapid deterioration. Body weight is therefore disregarded in our groupings.

The adoption of matched groups is one which should meet Smithwick's (1948) requirements when he states "Further comparison of surgically and non surgically treated cases divided into similar sub-groups in which the most important variables are held constant is desirable. Until this can be done the influence and relative merits of various therapeutic measures upon the course of hypertensive vascular disease cannot be evaluated with certainty." Although the numbers in this investigation are small, our statistical colleague (B.W.) is satisfied that they are sufficiently large to provide information that is significant.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

It must be emphasized strongly that the reliability of this analysis depends entirely on the validity of the grouping and matching of the cases described above. In a clinical trial it is necessary that the allocation of cases to experimental and control groups shall be free from bias in respect of severity of symptoms, age, sex, or any other circumstance likely to have a bearing on prognosis. This is usually contrived by a deliberately planned experiment in which the cases are allotted to one or other form of treatment by a designed process. In the present investigation, however, this was not done, each patient was given surgical or medical treatment as seemed appropriate without strict regard to the possible future use of the cases in a statistical comparison.

It has been possible, however, owing to such factors as changing standards as to indications for operation, patients declining operation, and so on, to match our surgical groups with medical, on the basis of the observations made during the patient's first stay in hospital and thus the series of cases has been converted retrospectively into a properly controlled experiment to the best of our ability. All the patients had been under detailed observation in the wards of the hospital and had submitted to the same routine.

In the statistical analysis each group was taken separately and the "surgical" cases compared with the 1st and 2nd class "medical" cases therein. Six criteria are available for statistical evaluation, these can be divided into two sections. In the first the observations made at periodic re-examinations of those patients who survived are considered particularly in regard to the following factors: (1) retinal grade, (2) cardiac efficiency (3) renal

efficiency, (4) symptom grade, and (5) diastolic blood pressure. The second part is a consideration of the incidence of deaths in relation to sex, severity of symptoms and method of treatment.

COMPARISON BY SYMPTOMS AND SIGNS

In the analysis under this heading, the change was noted, for each patient, between the initial value or grade and that found at a specified time after treatment, in each of the items noted above. The choice of the time interval is of some importance. It is desirable to use as long a period as possible, to give ample time for the results of treatment to become manifest, a long interval also helps to reduce bias, by eliminating from the analysis all patients who die soon after the initial examination, and who therefore may have been too advanced in the disease to benefit from treatment. It also serves to minimize any effects attributable to psychological betterment and unintentional suggestion. On the other hand, increasing the time interval involves omission from the comparison of all the more recent cases. The best compromise is to base the main comparison on the difference between the initial findings and those at the examination most nearly coinciding with the first anniversary of the commencement of treatment, or of sympathectomy.

Data on change of symptom-grade are available

for 47 surgical cases (20 male and 27 female) and 42 medical cases (11 male and 31 female), a total of 89 patients. Observations on criteria 1, 2, 3, and 5 (see p 288) are also on record for most of these cases. Comparisons of changes after three years were also made, but the number of cases was only 41, the findings for the one-year and three-year periods are fully concordant.

Criteria 2, 3, and 4 are on the ABC scale, an arbitrary value of unity being given to each successive step. Retinal grade is 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4, as described earlier, blood pressure differences were measured quantitatively in mm Hg. In each group of patients the average change in the medically and surgically treated cases was calculated with respect to each criterion, and the probability that the observed difference, if any, might be attributable to chance fluctuations. The combined probability that all the differences with respect to treatment might be chance effects were then calculated. Where this probability is less than 1/20 the treatments are taken as giving significantly different results.

Results of analysis The main findings are as follows.

(1) In the *symptom grading*, the surgical cases show a great and decisive superiority over the medical. The details for a 12-months interval are shown in Table III. A positive value in the last

TABLE III
MEAN CHANGES IN SYMPTOM GRADE AFTER ONE YEAR

Group	Surgical cases		Medical cases		Difference between means*
	No	Mean improvement	No	Mean improvement	
Males					
1	3	0.67 grade	0	—	—
2	4	2.00	2	0.50	1.50
3 A	5	1.80	2	0.50	1.30
3 B	2	2.00	3	0.67	1.33
4	2	1.50	1	1.00	0.50
5 A	3	1.33	0	—	—
5 B	1	2.00	1	—1.00	3.00
Females					
1 A	3	1.33	4	0.50	0.83
1 B	1	1.00	3	0.33	0.67
1 C	3	2.00	3	0.00	2.00
2 A	1	2.00	1	1.00	1.00
2 B	3	1.00	4	0.25	0.75
2 C	5	1.20	2	0.50	0.70
3 A	3	0.67	5	0.20	0.47
3 B	2	2.00	6	0.33	1.67
4	1	0.00	2	1.00	1.00
5 A	4	1.50	1	0.00	1.50
5 B	1	1.00	0	—	—
Total	47	1.43	42	0.38	1.05

* A positive value in the last column indicates that the surgical response was more favourable than the medical. The relief of symptoms one year after treatment in the surgical group is on the average superior to the medical.

column means that the surgical cases did better. It will be seen that only in one group (female group 4, with one surgical and two medical cases) is there a minus sign. As might be expected, the combined test of significance shows an infinitesimal probability (less than 1/1,000,000,000) that the superiority of the surgical cases is due to sampling fluctuation.

On the average, the surgical cases improved by about 1.4 symptom grades in the course of a year, almost all were able to work, and many were free from symptoms. In the medical cases, the average improvement was less than 0.4 of a symptom grade.

(2) In diastolic blood pressure, the medical cases show an average rise while the surgical cases show an average fall, and the difference is highly significant statistically. The amount of rise or fall did not seem to vary with the severity of the cases. It was therefore legitimate to pool all the surgical and all the medical cases. The means and some tests of significance are shown in Table IV. Although

TABLE IV

MEAN CHANGES IN DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE
AFTER ONE YEAR

Cases	No	Mean change (mm Hg.)
Surgical cases	31	-8.39
Medical cases	30	+8.37
Difference		16.76 ± 5.08
t		3.30
p		0.001 approx

the changes are statistically established, they are not very striking in magnitude, averaging +8.4 mm Hg in the medical cases and -8.4 mm Hg in the surgical.

(3) In the retinal grading there was a difference in favour of the surgical cases, which is just statistically significant. On the average the surgical cases improved in twelve months by 0.5 of a grade, while the medical cases showed no change.

(4) & (5) Cardiac and renal gradings showed a difference in favour of surgical treatment which, however, in neither case was statistically significant.

The general conclusion from this part of the analysis is that among patients who survive a year or more, those who received surgical treatment are functionally and subjectively considerably better than those treated medically. The surgical cases also appear to be better on objective signs: blood pressure, and cardiac, retinal and renal gradings. But the difference in the well-being of the patients is much greater than would be expected from these objective assessments.

COMPARISON BY MORTALITY

We now come to the consideration of the second part of the statistical analysis—the analysis of death incidence. Including all surgical cases and the first and second class medical comparisons, we have records of 128 patients of whom 36 died. It was soon obvious that the death rate in the benign cases (groups 1 to 4 inclusive) was so widely different from that in the malignant cases (groups 5A, 5B and 5C) that those two classes were best treated separately.

In the benign groups there are 45 surgical cases with 5 deaths, compared with 55 medical cases with 7 deaths. On the crude figures there is no evidence of any difference. This is confirmed by more refined analysis. These patients were of disparate ages and had been under observation for periods varying from a few months to several years. The older the patient, and the longer the period under observation, the greater the risk of death. For each patient was calculated the chance of dying during the period of observation if he or she had the same death risk as prevailed for persons of like age and sex in the general population as listed in the Life Table for Scotland for 1931. The period of risk for survivors was taken as the time since the first examination and for deceased patients as the period from the first examination until death. The sum of the figures for all the patients in a group gives the number of 'expected deaths'. The data are shown in Table V.

It will be seen that there were 5 deaths in surgical cases, against the expectation of about 1.1 and 7 in medical cases against the expectation of about 1.3 deaths. This indicates that the death rates for persons with benign essential hypertension seeking hospital advice is about 5 times that prevailing in the population as a whole, and there is no evidence on these small numbers, of any difference between medical and surgical cases.

THE MORTALITY RATE IN MALIGNANT HYPERTENSION

Of the original medical group of 20 malignant hypertensive patients 2 were unsuitable for inclusion in the statistical analysis, one being a third class comparison already discarded and the other dying a few days after admission to hospital. There remains for consideration the 10 surgical patients of whom 5 died and 18 medical patients of whom 17 died. At first sight this suggests a strong recommendation of surgical treatment, but further detail is necessary to ensure that the groups are comparable. All the cases surgically treated were regarded as suitable for operation by both physicians and surgeons with the exception of one patient, a woman who had been in congestive heart failure prior to

TABLE V
DEATHS IN PATIENTS WITH BENIGN HYPERTENSION*

DEATHS IN PATIENTS WITH BENIGN HYPERTENSION						
Group	Surgical cases			Medical cases		
	No of patients	Deaths		No of patients	Deaths	
		Expected	Observed		Expected	Observed
Males						
1	3	0.07	1	3	0.06	0
2	5	0.29	0	3	0.08	2
3 A	6	0.19	0	2	0.04	0
3 B	2	0.02	0	3	0.09	0
4	2	0.04	0	2	0.03	1
All male	18	0.61	1	13	0.31	3
Females						
1 A	3	0.04	0	4	0.07	0
1 B	1	0.01	0	6	0.23	0
1 C	3	0.09	0	5	0.16	1
2 A	2	0.02	0	2	0.05	0
2 B	4	0.08	1	4	0.07	0
2 C	7	0.16	2	5	0.12	0
3 A	3	0.06	1	5	0.08	1
3 B	3	0.05	0	7	0.23	0
4	1	0.02	0	4	0.04	2
All female	27	0.51	4	42	1.02	4
Total	45	1.12	5	55	1.33	7

* By comparing the expected deaths with the observed, the death rate in benign hypertension is approximately five times that prevailing in the population as a whole. There is no significant difference between our two groups of medically and surgically treated patients.

admission to hospital. In this case the surgeons were reluctant but were finally persuaded to intervene.

The medically treated cases were graded in three categories: (A) where there was no contraindication to surgical treatment, (B) where the physicians thought operation justifiable although one criterion fell short of the desirable level, and (C) cases where neither physicians nor surgeons would advise operation, that is with severe renal or cardiac failure or both combined.

The surgical cases described above fell into category (A) with the exception of the one stated, who was graded (B). Details of the cases in these surgical and medical categories are given in Table VI.

It will be seen that of the 9 surgical (A) cases, 5 died after an average period of 13 months and 4 have lived for an average of 26 months after being first treated. There are 5 medical (A) cases all of whom died after an average interval of 5 months. The only surgical (B) case has not died after an interval of 14 months, out of 9 medical (B) cases, 8 died after an average of 1.8 months, and one has survived for the short period of 3.5 months. The 4 medical (C) cases died after an average interval of 1.3 months.

The only valid control for the main body of surgical malignant cases is the (A) group of medical patients. As far as they go the comparative death rates in (A) and (B) categories appear to favour surgical treatment. The data however are insufficient for a definite decision. The physicians in charge of the medical (A) cases are of the opinion, on clinical grounds, that these patients would have lived longer had they been treated surgically, but for statistical purposes a much larger series of malignant cases is required. It seems unlikely that this will be obtained in cases fit enough for operation, because this will not be refused in future merely in order to provide a control group. But there is a prospect of an entirely ethical future experiment. In the (B) cases, where the physicians believe operation would be beneficial and the surgeons regard it as too hazardous, the opinion of the surgeons has hitherto usually prevailed. If it could be agreed that in future half these cases, chosen by a random process, could be operated on, and the other half kept as controls, decisive information about the value of operation in the most severe cases might be forthcoming. Since in the absence of surgical treatment these patients have an

TABLE VI
DEATHS IN PATIENTS WITH MALIGNANT HYPERTENSION

(A) No contraindication to surgical treatment

	Died				Survived			
	Group	Sex	Age	Months lived	Group	Sex	Age	Months observed
Surgical (9 cases)	5 A	M	46	9	5 A	M	44	18
	5 B	M	61	10	5 A	M	47	50
	5 C	M	45	5	5 A	F	45	22
	5 A	F	36	13 5	5 A	F	45	14
	5 A	F	45	29				
	5 cases			Mean 13 3	4 cases			Mean 26 0
Medical (5 cases)	5 A	M	40	1				
	5 A	M	44	2				
	5 B	M	60	6				
	5 A	F	57	12				
	5 A	F	31	5				
	5 cases			Mean 5 2				

(B) One criterion against surgical treatment

	Died				Survived			
	Group	Sex	Age	Months lived	Group	Sex	Age	Months observed
Surgical (1 case)					5 B	F	44	14
Medical (9 cases)	5 A	M	49	5	5 C	M	56	3 5
	5 A	M	50	2				
	5 A	M	66	0 5				
	5 A	M	54	1				
	5 B	M	53	1				
	5 C	M	64	3				
	5 A	F	48	1				
	5 B	F	49	1				
	8 cases			Mean 1 8	1 case			3 5

(C) Severe cardiac or renal failure

	Group	Sex	Age	Months lived	
No surgical cases					
Medical (4 cases)	5 A	M	51	0 3	
	5 C	M	53	0 5	
	5 C	M	48	3	
	5 B	F	56	1 5	
	4 cases			Mean 1 3	

average expectation of life of less than two months, no harm can be done by operation, and possibly some good to the patients, as well as providing an advance in knowledge.

In malignant hypertension surgical treatment seems to lead to greater well-being in surviving patients on a larger scale than would be deduced

from the concomitant small remission of objective findings. There are indications, falling short however of statistical significance that the risk of death may be lowered by operation. Valuable evidence could probably be obtained if operation were performed on alternate cases for which physicians recommend operation and surgeons disagree.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

One hundred and fifty-one patients, suffering from essential hypertension, form the basis of the present study. They have been carefully investigated and their progress observed over a number of years.

For comparative purposes they have been divided into two groups. The first, numbering 96 patients, received purely medical treatment—rest and sedation. The second group, composed of 55 patients, was submitted to sympathectomy.

Largely as a result of changing standards regarding the indications for surgical intervention and with widening experience of the procedure over the past nine years, it has been possible retrospectively to match our surgical group in their pre-operative state with a corresponding series of medical cases in whom for one reason or another surgery was not employed.

By subdividing the medical and surgical cases into smaller categories alike in sex, age, retinal state, cardiac and renal function, and diastolic blood pressure, as determined before the start of therapy, accurate comparison was facilitated and the findings observed a year later in each group reassessed. The results thus obtained have been submitted to statistical analysis. For a variety of reasons 22 medical cases were found unsuitable for comparison and were discarded.

The statistical investigation indicates that in benign hypertension at the end of one year and also at the third anniversary of surgical treatment the sympathectomized patients experience a greater relief of symptoms than corresponding medical groups. Almost all in the surgical group were able to work and many were free from symptoms.

By the end of a year the diastolic blood pressure showed on the average a fall of approximately 8 mm Hg in the surgical group, whereas amongst those patients treated exclusively by medical measures it had tended to rise by about an average of 8 mm after the same length of time. In the surgical group there was also a slight improvement in the retinal grade. In this respect the medical cases showed no change.

The general conclusion is that when our two groups are compared those patients who receive surgical treatment for their benign hypertension are subjectively considerably better than those treated medically. There is less change in the level of the diastolic pressure.

The death rate for persons whose symptoms of so-called benign hypertension lead them to seek help in the hospital is about five times that prevailing in the population as a whole. From our small numbers submitted to analysis there is no evidence of any difference in the mortality rates in the two groups of medically and surgically treated patients.

In malignant hypertension, the data available from a comparatively small number of patients—30 in all—suggest that surgery leads to greater well-being in survivors, but a much larger series is required if statistical proof is to be obtained.

We gladly express our warmest thanks to our surgical colleagues, Prof Norman Dott, Prof Sir James Learmonth, and Mr George Alexander, who by their generous cooperation have made the present investigations possible. Dr Sven Hammarström of Stockholm has kindly placed some as yet unpublished observations at our disposal.

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SOCIÉTÉ EUROPEENNE DE CARDIOLOGIE

The following communication from the Societe Europeenne de Cardiologie (European Cardiological Society) is printed for the information of the members of the British Cardiac Society. It has not yet been considered by the British Cardiac Society or by its Council and its publication is for information and must not be taken as meaning that the details have been accepted.

Le 29 janvier 1949 se sont reunis à Buxelles des cardiologues, représentant quatorze nations européennes, dans le but de constituer la Societe Europeenne de Cardiologie.

Les statuts provisoires suivants ont été adoptes.

(1) La Société Européenne de Cardiologie se propose de grouper les cardiologues de toutes les nations d'Europe.

(2) La Société Européenne de Cardiologie a pour but de contribuer au développement de la cardiologie, de favoriser la collaboration scientifique, d'aider aux rapprochements personnels. Dans le domaine de la pratique cardiologique la Société Européenne de Cardiologie peut être amenée à donner des directives d'ordre moral.

(3) La direction de la Société sera assurée par

(a) Un Bureau composé d'un Président d'honneur, d'un Président, de trois Vice-Présidents, d'un Secrétaire général et d'un Trésorier.

(b) Un Comité constitutif composé des délégués officiels réunis à Bruxelles à l'assemblée constitutive. Ce Comité pourra être élargi ultérieurement.

(4) Une réunion du Bureau et du Comité constitutif aura lieu au moins tous les deux ans. Toutefois, le Président a pouvoir de prendre toute décision d'urgence pourvu qu'il ait recueilli l'approbation écrite de la majorité des membres du Comité constitutif.

(5) La Société comprendra des membres titulaires, correspondants et honoraires.

(6) Tout cardiologue européen peut faire partie de la Société pour autant que sa candidature ait été parrainée par la Société à laquelle il appartient, à son défaut par son délégué national, à son défaut par un membre du Comité constitutif.

(7) Pour entretenir les rapports entre les membres et étendre l'action de la Société Européenne de Cardiologie, le Comité organisera, en principe tous les deux ans, un Congrès. Il s'intercalera entre les réunions de l'Association Pan Américaine de Cardiologie.

(8) Le Bureau et le Comité constitutif ont l'autorisation de chercher les appuis financiers nécessaires pour subvenir aux activités courantes, pour organiser des réunions scientifiques, etc.

(9) Le nouveau groupement devra, en temps voulu, avec la Société Pan Américaine de Cardiologie, former la Société Internationale de Cardiologie.

(10) Toute question non envisagée dans ces statuts sera traitée dans le règlement d'ordre intérieur.

Bruxelles le 29 janvier 1949

EUROPAN CARDIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

On January 29, 1949, a meeting took place at Brussels between delegates of fourteen European countries in order to constitute a European Cardiological Society.

The following provisional *by-laws* have been agreed.

(1) The European Cardiological Society proposes to group the cardiologists of all the European nations.

(2) The aims of the European Cardiological Society are to foster the development of cardiology, to further scientific exchanges and to help personal contacts of those working in this speciality. The

European Cardiological Society may also be called upon to give moral directives in the sphere of practical cardiology.

(3) The administration of the Society will be entrusted to

(a) A Council consisting of an Honorary President, a President, three Vice Presidents, a General Secretary and a Treasurer.

(b) A Constitutive Committee consisting of the official delegates present at the constitutive Assembly in Brussels. This Constitutive Committee may be enlarged at a later date.

(4) A meeting of the Council and the Constitutive

Committee will take place at least biennially. In case of emergency, however, the President has authority to take the necessary decisions without a meeting, providing he has obtained the written agreement of the majority of the Constitutive Committee.

(5) The Society will consist of active members, corresponding members, and honorary members.

(6) Membership of the Society is open to all European cardiologists providing their admission is recommended by the Society to which they belong or by their national delegate or by a member of the Constitutive Committee.

(7) It is suggested that, if possible, a biennial Congress will be organized in order to maintain close collaboration between the members and enlarge the Society's activities. These Congresses will be held at intervals between those of the Pan-American Cardiological Association.

(8) The Council and the Constitutive Committee of the Society have authority to seek financial assistance to cover the necessary expenditure inherent to current activities, the organization of scientific meetings, and any other purposes decided by Committee.

(9) The new Society will, in due course, together with the Pan-American Cardiological Society, form the International Cardiological Society.

(10) All matters not dealt with in the present *Bj-Laws* will be subject to Regulations.

Brussels, January 29, 1949.

<i>Great Britain</i>	<i>Holland</i>
(s) D EVAN BEDFORD	(s) FORMUNE
<i>Belgium</i>	<i>Italy</i>
(s) PIERRE RYLANT, FRANÇOIS VAN DOOREN	(s) CAMILLO COLOMBI
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<i>France</i>	<i>Switzerland</i>
(s) CHARLES LAUBRY, JEAN LENEGRE	(s) IVAN MAHAİM
<i>Greece</i>	<i>Jugoslavia</i>
(s) DEMOSTHENE PAPAPANAYOTOU	(s) CEDOMIL PLAVSIC

The *provisional Council of the European Cardiological Society* is constituted as follows

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Treasurer

DOCTOR IVAN MAHAİM (Switzerland)

ABSTRACTS OF CARDIOLOGY

Cholesterol and Myocardial Infarcts H LALIBERTÉ and M VACHON *Laval méd*, 13, 294-302, March, 1948

Cardiac infarction may occur in a young man or woman, in whom there is no evidence of syphilis or hypertension. The authors discuss 39 such cases in patients varying in age from 28 to 47, 11 of whom were women and 28 men, and in which the ultimate cause of the infarct was thought to be fatty deposits in the small arteries due to a raised blood cholesterol. In hereditary xanthomatosis there is a disturbance of the lipid metabolism, and, although fatty deposits in skin and mucous membrane are not always seen, abdominal angina and infarcts sometimes occur, there is always a raised blood-cholesterol in such cases. In 7 cases of cardiac infarction, the only common factor was a high level of cholesterol in the blood. In only 2 cases was necropsy possible. In both there was an extensive infarct of the left ventricle, the arteries being stuffed with yellow plaques with little sign of fibrosis. All patients had a normal blood pressure, and most had had previous attacks of precordial or abdominal pain. The authors conclude that the sterols play an important, perhaps a primary, role in the causation of arterial occlusion.

T E C Early

Clinical Features in Coarctation of the Aorta A Review of 96 Cases N A CHRISTENSEN and E A HINES *Proc Mayo Clin*, 23, 339-342, July 21, 1948

At the Mayo Clinic between 1925 and 1947 coarctation of the aorta was diagnosed in 119 cases. Males predominated over females in the ratio 3.8 to 1. Only 26% of the patients were below 20 years of age—the period of life when surgery is best tolerated. In 30% the condition was discovered incidentally, high blood pressure frequently pointed to its presence, but only 3 patients gave a history of intermittent claudication. Palpation of the larger arteries to detect differences in pulsation is more reliable than the smaller limb arteries. Differences in arterial pulsation and pulse pressure in the arms may aid in locating the site of the coarctation. In 80% there was evidence of collateral circulation over the scapular and interscapular regions and somewhat less frequently over the supraclavicular and internal mammary regions.

Cardiovascular murmurs were present in 94% the most frequent being a fairly loud systolic bruit over the base of the heart. Basal diastolic murmurs were heard in 20% and were probably associated with valvular lesions. In 25% there was a ray evidence of cardiac enlargement and in 30% electrocardiographic evidence of left ventricular preponderance. Ophthalmoscopic examination showed general narrowing of the retinal arterioles, particularly in the cases with hypertension but no patient had hypertensive retinopathy. Renal function studies

revealed no abnormality and this possibly accounts for the absence of severe hypertensive disease. Important features in establishing the diagnosis were found to be: (1) characteristic differences in arterial pulsations and in direct and indirect blood pressure readings between the upper and lower limbs; (2) evidence of well developed collateral circulation; (3) rib notching in the presence of one or more cardiac or cardiovascular murmurs.

H E Holling

The Treatment of Angina Pectoris with Propylthiouracil G HOLLANDER and H MANDELBAUM *Ann intern Med*, 28, 1150-1156, June 1948

Ten patients with angina pectoris and hypertension were treated with propylthiouracil in the Jewish Hospital Brooklyn, N.Y. Initially a dose of from 50 to 100 mg. was given daily. This was increased to a maximum of 200 mg. daily. Improvement took place within 8 weeks in 4 of these patients and 2 of them were able to resume work. Two became progressively worse during treatment. No correlation could be found between the levels of the basal metabolic rate and improvement in symptoms. One case with an initial figure of -8° , became free from attacks when the level fell to -26° . 3 more cases, in which the initial levels were raised, improved while the rate was still above normal limits. The blood cholesterol levels often did not rise as the basal metabolic rate fell. No toxic effects on the blood were observed but water retention occurred in 7 patients causing dyspnoea and oedema of the legs.

C H C Bam

Experiences with the Use of Heparin and Dicumarol in the Treatment of Coronary Thrombosis and Thrombo-embolic Disease J B VANDER VEER, D S MARSHALL and P T KUO *Trans Stud Coll Phys Phila*, 16, 67-72, June, 1948

The authors, working in the Pennsylvania Hospital Philadelphia, have participated in a controlled study sponsored by the American Heart Association to determine the value of dicumarol therapy in coronary occlusion with myocardial infarction. There were 35 treated cases and 51 controls. Prothrombin times were kept so far as was possible between 30 and 35 seconds, control times being 13 to 15 seconds. The initial dose of dicumarol was 300 mg. daily for 2 or 3 days, the maintenance dose somewhat less than 100 mg. daily. Treatment was continued for about a month. Among the controls thrombo-embolic complications occurred in 12 patients, 9 of whom died; there were also 9 deaths from other causes. In the treated cases thrombo-embolic complications occurred in 6 with a fatal ending; in 2 there was 1 other death.

The results of a preliminary analysis of the first 800 cases of cardiac infarction treated with dicoumarol which were collected by a special committee of the American Heart Association are also given. The death rate in the controls was 23%, in dicoumarol-treated cases 13%. Thrombo-embolic complications occurred in 19% of the untreated and in 9% of the treated patients. Haemorrhagic manifestations of one type or another were encountered in 4% of the controls and in 11% of the treated cases, but serious haemorrhage was rare.

The value of anticoagulants in the treatment of simple phlebothrombosis or thrombophlebitis is again stressed. In 23 untreated cases there were 9 deaths; in 30 cases treated by venous ligation, 3 deaths; in 49 cases treated with heparin and dicoumarol there was only 1 death. It is admitted that selection of cases was weighted against the controls.

Paul Wood

Left Vocal Cord Paralysis Associated with Cardiac Disease. D A DOLOWITZ and C S LEWIS *Amer J Med* 4 856-862, June, 1948

The literature on the mechanism of paralysis of the left recurrent laryngeal nerve in cases with cardiac enlargement is reviewed, and 2 personal cases are described. One patient had mitral and aortic valvular disease with marked enlargement of the left auricle, the other had atrial septal defect, possibly with mitral stenosis (Lutembacher's syndrome) and greatly enlarged pulmonary conus. The area bounded by the aortic arch superiorly, the pulmonary artery inferiorly, and the ligamentum arteriosum medially was carefully examined in 5 fresh and 22 fixed cadavers, and a group of three to four lateral tracheo-bronchial lymph nodes was constantly found in close proximity to the left recurrent nerve. It is pointed out that these lymph nodes may effectively compress the nerve when accompanied by cardiac hypertrophy, engorgement of the pulmonary artery, or both.

A Schott

Comparison of the Fick and Dye Injection Methods of Measuring the Cardiac Output in Man. W F HAMILTON, R L RILEY, A M ATTIAH, A COUNNAND, D M FOWELL, A HIMMELSTEIN, R P NOBLE, J W REMINGTON, D W RICHARDS, N C WHEELER, and A C WITHAM *Amer J Physiol* 153, 309-321, May, 1948. 2 figs, 17 refs.

Cardiac output can be determined from the time-concentration curve in arterial blood (obtained from rapid serial samples) of a dye injected rapidly into a vein. Thus and the direct Fick method (cardiac catheterization) were compared in 48 almost simultaneous determinations in 31 subjects including normal subjects at rest and during light and heavy exercise and patients suffering from various cardio-respiratory disease at rest and during occasional light exercise. The technique of determining cardiac output by the dye injection method is described in detail. The results agreed within 25% in all but 6 determinations. The distribution of results about the line of identity was symmetrical, so that the averages for each method were almost identical. The dye method, owing to its rapid performance and its nature is more apt

to reflect physiological variations. The sources of error in it are discussed, the chief being recirculation of blood (containing dye) during the determination.

R A Gregory

The Phenomenon of Skin Hyperalgesia in Angina Pectoris. E V LEVINSON *Klin Med Mosk*, 26, No 9, 47-55, 1948

In 145 patients with anginal pain areas of cutaneous hyperalgesia were repeatedly mapped out with a view to evaluating their diagnostic significance and their relation to the results of treatment. Cutaneous hyperalgesia was most commonly present in the C2 to C4 and D1 to D5 dermatomes, rarely in the C5 to C7 and D6 dermatomes. These zones were not static in any one patient but were liable to change if the irradiation of the pain changed. They were always present in patients whose attacks were frequent or prolonged, but were only found in 79% of the whole series. When patients were tested within 3 days of an attack, areas of hyperalgesia were present in 93%. Their disappearance is considered to be a valuable index to the success of treatment.

S S B Gilder

Studies on the Blood Flow in the Extremities in Cases of Coarctation of the Aorta. Determinations Before and After Excision of the Coarctate Region. K G WAKIM, O SLAUGHTER, and O T CLAGETT *Proc Mayo Clin*, 23, 347-351, July 21, 1948

Plethysmographic measurements of the blood flow to the arm and leg in 14 normal persons at rest and 14 patients with aortic coarctation revealed no significant difference between the two groups, and in 9 cases no change in blood flow followed surgical removal of the coarctation.

H E Holling

The Relationship of Retinal Hemorrhages in Hypertensive Patients to Cerebral Hemorrhage. A Comparison of the Retinal Picture in Hypertensive Individuals who Died of Heart Failure with those who Suffered a Cerebral Hemorrhage. L A SOLOFF and C T BELLO *Amer J med Sci*, 215 660-664, June, 1948

Cerebral haemorrhage is the cause of death in nearly one-third of hypertensive individuals. The final mechanism of the haemorrhage is ill understood. It has been ascribed to the development of miliary aneurysms, to ischaemia of brain tissue and weakening of support for the blood vessels, to disease and rupture of the walls of veins and, more recently, to capillary weakness. The latter factor has been associated with the occurrence of retinal haemorrhage.

On a re-investigation, retinal haemorrhages were found to have been present in 5 out of 17 patients who had had a cerebral haemorrhage. Retinal haemorrhage was present in 14 out of 18 patients with hypertension who died of cardiac failure without cerebral haemorrhage. Retinal haemorrhages occurred more frequently in patients with large areas of 'spasm' of the retinal arteries than in subjects with marked thickening of these vessels. It is

concluded that retinal hæmorrhages cannot be used as a prognostic sign of future cerebral hæmorrhage

J McMichael

True Aneurysms of the Mitral Valve in Subacute Bacterial Endocarditis. O SAPHIR and E P LEROY *Amer J Path*, 24 83-95, Jan., 1948

Mycotic aneurysms of the mitral valve were found in 5 out of 12 cases of subacute bacterial endocarditis treated with sulphonamide preparations, heparin or penicillin. These cases were observed between 1943 and 1946—the authors were unable to find an example of mycotic aneurysm formation in 41 cases of subacute bacterial endocarditis seen between 1935 and 1943. Rupture of the aneurysm occurred in 4 cases, and the increased incompetence of the mitral valve may have contributed to death. The aneurysms probably arise in areas of granulation tissue situated in the substance of the valve. The authors suggest that the aneurysms represent attempts at healing of the endocarditis, perhaps as a result of the increasing use of chemotherapeutic agents in recent years.

R H D Short

The Action of Neostigmine in Supraventricular Tachycardias. S WALDMAN and L PELNER *Ann intern Med*, 29, 53-63, July, 1948

The action of neostigmine methylsulphate (or 'prostigmin') on sinus tachycardia and auricular and nodal paroxysmal tachycardias is discussed, the paper includes case notes and electrocardiograms of 5 patients. The tracings demonstrate the slowing of sinus tachycardias with rates of about 130 per minute to about 80 per minute within about 20 minutes of the injection of 1 mg of neostigmine, and the restoration of normal rhythm in a case of auricular tachycardia and in one of nodal tachycardia 5 minutes after injection. Immediately on the return of sinus rhythm the P-R interval is prolonged but becomes normal within a few minutes. In another case of auricular tachycardia the abnormal rhythm persisted after the injection, but there was an immediate and progressive effect on A-V conduction so that 33 minutes after the injection there was 3 1 4 1 A-V block. Two days later normal rhythm was recorded.

The influence of neostigmine on these types of tachycardia is believed to be due to its action on the myoneural junctions of parasympathetic vagus fibres in the S A and A-V nodes and in auricular muscle. The drug augments vagus activity at these sites by inhibiting the action of cholinesterase. If these tachycardias result from the action of sympathomimetic amines on the heart, the use of the parasympathomimetic drug neostigmine is rational therapy.

S H Cookson

Continued Hypertension Prognosis for Surgically Treated Patients. R. H SMITHWICK *Brit med J* 2,237-243, July 31, 1948

It is necessary to turn to the U.S.A. for any large series of patients treated surgically for hypertension the author describes his second series in this paper. The

operations were performed in Boston Massachusetts, and the author's own lumbo-sacral technique was employed. All of the 256 patients were suffering from continuous essential or malignant hypertension and had been operated upon at least 5 and at the most 94 years previously.

The state of the cardiovascular system was evaluated before and after operation with particular reference to the cerebral, retinal cardiac and renal areas. Intravenous pyelography was carried out as a routine, and the blood pressure data were so far as possible obtained in a standard fashion. Male patients comprised 39.4% and females 60.6% of the series. The total mortality during the 5 to 9 year period of observation was 31%, the mortality among males being 34% and among females 29%. The causes of death were cerebral, cardiac renal and miscellaneous, in that order with a heavy preponderance in the very young and the older age groups. The prognosis became poorer as the degree of eyeground abnormality increased and the same applied to the cardiovascular findings. The presence of arteriosclerosis was associated with a particularly poor prognosis. It had been previously noted that in a follow up period of 1 year to 5 years the blood pressure levels were lowered significantly in the majority of unselected patients but in the period of 5 to 9 years this lowering is not maintained and there has been a return of the pressure to pre operative levels in 44% of cases. There was evidence, however, of the slowing up of the rate of progress of cardiovascular disease, and this may prove to be a very important accomplishment. Comparison with medical treatment is made as much as possible but the major handicap is the absence of reliable and adequate medical statistics. Such comparisons as can be made at this time while admittedly inadequate, suggest that surgical treatment has favourably altered the prognosis in many cases of continued hypertension and cardiovascular disease.

H T Simmons

Asynchronous Activity of the Dog's Heart After Section of the Right Branch of the Bundle of His. A I SMIRNOV *Arkiv Patol* 10 No 3, 7-13 May-June 1948

The influence of section of the right branch of the bundle of His on the action of the heart was observed over a period of 6 years in a dog. During the first days after the operation a reduplicated first heart sound became audible at the apex. Three weeks later a systolic murmur became audible over the whole thorax. This murmur disappeared just before the death of the dog.

Six weeks after the operation atypical ECGs were present in leads II and III indicating that the right bundle of His had been severed. Repeated X-ray examination showed a gradual dilatation of the right ventricle. Changes in the electrocardiogram developed slowly after the operation. During the last days before the dog died of heart failure a marked oedema and ascites developed. Post mortem examination showed that the right branch of the bundle of His had been correctly cut and that its ends had not united again. Hypertrophy and degeneration of the right myocardium and a relative tricuspid incompetence were found. The

compensation of the right ventricle (hypertrophy and dilatation) had succeeded in maintaining normal circulation over a period of 4 years. This compensation, however, failed after 6 years causing death of the animal. No synchronous rhythm with the left ventricle occurred during the 6 years after the operation.

J Flaks

Serum Protein in Cardiac Patients G BJORCK, S HEDLUND, J KARNELL, and H KARNI *Nord Med*, 38, 1179-1182, June 11, 1948

The authors report the results of serum protein estimations on 147 hospital patients with various forms of heart disease. Globulin is rarely reduced but albumin is in two-thirds of the cases, especially if there is heart failure, oedema, or evidence of liver disease as shown by the other usual tests. Owing, however, to the multiplicity of factors governing the concentration of protein in the blood (absorption, utilization, synthesis, dilution and loss) and the fact that most of these factors are affected in some way by cardiac decompensation, interpretation is very difficult.

In recovery from heart failure the albumin content increases as does also the erythrocyte sedimentation rate possibly due to a rapid increase in fibrinogen. These increases are thought to be due to improvement in liver function and appear to be little related to diet, though the authors recommend use of protein hydrolysates. They admit however that no increase in the serum proteins may be detectable while decompensation persists and stress the importance of not giving hydrolysates, which contain an appreciable amount of salt.

A M M Wilson

Serum Cholesterol Values in Cardiac Patients G BJORCK and H KARNI *Nord Med* 38 1175-1179 June 11 1948

The authors discuss the value of cholesterol estimations in patients with heart disease based on the estimations carried out on 314 patients in the cardiac clinic of the Södersjukhus in Stockholm. Sackett's modification of Bloor's method was used.

The values varied considerably within an age group or disease group and even in the same patient at different times but on the whole values were higher in women than in men in old people than in young ones, and in patients with cardiac sclerosis than in those with other types of heart disease. The level tended to fall after admission to the ward irrespective of the diagnosis. The authors conclude, in agreement with Josephson (*Nord Med* 1947 33 498), that a single estimation is almost useless and that though repeated ones may be of diagnostic assistance in cases of liver disease, essential hypercholesterolemia and thyroid disease they are of very doubtful value in the differential diagnosis of cardiovascular conditions.

A M M Wilson

Carotid Artery Thrombosis Report of Eight Cases due to Trauma H W CALDWELL and F C HADDEN *Ann intern Med* 28 1132-1142, June 1948

The authors describe 8 cases of carotid artery throm-

bosis seen in a military hospital in 1945. The thrombosis was due to trauma of the common carotid following penetrating wounds of the neck. Patients were usually comatose on admission to hospital with changes in the pupil reactions on the affected side and signs of hemiplegia on the other. Absence of pulsation over the temporal artery from involvement of the external carotid was found to be a valuable confirmatory sign. One patient recovered after heparin was administered; the remainder died. There were 5 necropsies; in 1 case the thrombus had extended as far as the circle of Willis; in 2 cases major cerebral vessels were blocked by emboli. The authors consider that this condition may be more common in war surgery than has been supposed.

C W C Bam

Chronic Infection and Atherosclerosis Some Additional Experimental Data N W JONES and A L ROGERS *Arch Path* 45, 271-277, March 1948

There is some clinical and experimental evidence that chronic infections, especially of the gall-bladder and paranasal sinuses, may play a part in the causation of atherosclerosis and associated heart failure. Micro-organisms were found in sections of the thickened thrombosed small arteries of chronically hyperplastic sinus tissues removed at operation. Similar organisms were sometimes demonstrated in sections of thrombosed coronary arteries from patients dying of acute coronary thrombosis. Micro-organisms introduced into the paranasal sinuses or paralaryngeal lymph nodes of cats could be demonstrated in the walls of the aorta and coronary arteries. Trypan-blue granules introduced into the paralaryngeal lymph nodes were demonstrated in phagocytic cells within the walls of the aorta and coronary arteries.

Martin Hynes

Effect of Choline in the Prevention of Experimental Aortic Atherosclerosis A STEINER *Arch Path* 45 327-332 March, 1948

Rabbits were given 1 g of cholesterol with their food three times weekly. A well-controlled experiment showed that the addition to the diet of 0.5 or 1 g of choline hydrochloride daily delayed the development of atherosclerosis for 80 days or more. The effect was greater with the larger dose of choline. Hypercholesterolemia was equal in the control animals and in those receiving choline.

Martin Hynes

Vitamin E in Heart Disease. H LEVY and E P BOAS *Ann intern Med*, 28 1117-1124 June, 1948

Vitamin E (α -tocopherol) was given without benefit to 13 patients suffering from heart disease with relatively fixed symptoms. The series comprised cases of angina pectoris and cardiac failure due to coronary disease or rheumatic valvular disease. The drug was given in doses varying between 200 and 800 mg daily and administration was continued for from 7 to 12 weeks. In one case of angina pectoris there was a temporary improvement for the first two weeks, but the attacks then

continued at their former frequency. In no other case was the number of anginal attacks affected, nor did any of the signs abate in those with cardiac failure. The authors conclude that the use of vitamin E in heart disease is not warranted.

C W C Bain

The Effect of Dicumarol on the Heart in Experimental Acute Coronary Occlusion H L BLUMGART, A S FREEDBERG, P M ZOLL, H D LEWIS, and S WESSLER
Amer Heart J, 36, 13-27, July, 1948

The administration of dicoumarol does not retard the healing process or the development of collateral circulation in dogs with experimentally produced myocardial infarction.

R T Grant

Coronary Deaths in "Healthy" Young Soldiers: A Clinicopathologic Study N E REICH
Amer Practit, Phila, 2, 731-747, July, 1948

Coronary artery disease as a cause of death in young subjects received little attention until the war of 1939-45. The present article deals with findings in 11 "healthy" soldiers ranging in age from 22 to 38 years who died from coronary artery disease. These men had been subjected to frequent medical examination, but the results were negative. In 7 over-weight was thought to be a predisposing factor, the effects of alcohol and tobacco were considered to be negligible. The symptoms were generally atypical in those patients surviving more than an hour. Pain was present in the epigastrium, left chest, or precordium. Usually it did not radiate although in one case there was continuous pain in the jaw for 3 days and in another left shoulder pain. Contrary to accepted ideas, the onset of pain was always in the waking hours and pain was not associated with any strenuous activity. Six of the patients died within an hour, and 5 lived for from 2 to 33 days. At necropsy half of the cases showed significant cardiac hypertrophy. Severe coronary sclerosis was present in 6 of 8 cases with actual thrombosis, and was moderate in 2 others. Two patients had sclerosis without thrombosis and in one there was a coronary embolism with arteritis and septic thrombosis of the smaller coronary branches.

James W Brown

Excessive Hypertension of Long Duration A M BURGESS
New Engl J Med 239, 75-79, July 15 1948

From patients seen in private consultation since 1914, 100 consecutive patients were selected in whom hypertension (systolic pressure greater than 180 or diastolic pressure greater than 100) had existed for more than 8 years. Of the 100 patients 32 were between 28 and 50 years of age, 39 between 51 and 60, and the remaining 29 between 61 and 77. The shortest duration of hypertension was 9 years, the longest 25 years. In 1947 53 patients were dead, 30 were in good health. 17 were incapacitated to a greater or lesser degree. The effects of sex, age, height of systolic and diastolic pressures had little effect on the actual duration of life.

This study emphasizes the good prognosis in uncomplicated, benign or non progressive hypertension.

W T Cooke

Preoperative and Postoperative Studies of Intraradial and Intrafemoral Pressures in Patients with Coarctation of the Aorta G E BROWN, O T CLAGETT, H B BURCHELL, and E H WOOD
Proc Mayo Clin 23 352-358 July 21, 1948

Intraradial and intrafemoral pulse waves were recorded by means of a hypodermic strain gauge manometer in a series of patients with coarctation of the aorta. The characteristic findings were an increase in the systolic and diastolic pressures in the radial arteries and a reduced systolic, though often with an increased diastolic pressure in the femoral artery. The onset of the femoral pulse wave is often delayed. When the stenosed portion of the aorta was resected and an end-to-end anastomosis carried out the findings reverted to normal, but when the stenosed portion was excised and the subclavian artery anastomosed with the distal aorta the delay in the femoral pulse wave disappeared though the femoral pulse pressure was still reduced. The findings could not be correlated with the clinical response of the patient to the procedure.

H E Holling

The Surgical Treatment of Coarctation of the Aorta O T CLAGETT
Proc Mayo Clin 23 359-360 July 21

Between 10 and 20 years of age is regarded as the most suitable age for operation in cases of coarctation of the aorta. Before the age of 10 the aorta is not large enough for satisfactory anastomosis and it is not known whether the ring of scar tissue left in the aorta at the site of the anastomosis will increase in size as normal growth and development take place. Above the age of 20 considerable vascular damage may have occurred and good results cannot be expected. At operation it is found that the length of the stenosed portion varies considerably in cases in which the two divided ends of the aorta could not be brought together. The author has anastomosed the subclavian artery to the caudal end of the divided aorta. The results of this procedure however have not been so good as was hoped.

H E Holling

The Blind Spot in Hypertension B G TOYBIN
Ann Med 26 No 9 39-47 1948

The study of the blind spot is considered to yield useful results in the diagnosis of early hypertension. The author examined by campimetry 69 eyes in 35 patients with early hypertension. Some control studies were carried out on normal eyes. In 67 of the 69 eyes there were definite deviations from the normal which fell into two groups: (1) significant increase in the extent of the blind spot; (2) irregularities in its contours, prolongations taking the shape of knobs, teeth and attenuated branches. Ophthalmoscopic examination revealed some changes in the fundus in 28 cases.

S S B Gilder

Ecchymosis of the Abdominal Wall as an Early Diagnostic Sign of Dissecting Aneurysm of the Aorta R. GREEN and O. SAPHIR. *Amer J med Sci*, 216, 24-26 July, 1948

In a patient in whom the findings indicated acute embolic occlusion of the iliac artery, the presence of ecchymosis of the abdominal wall suggested the diagnosis of acute dissecting aneurysm of the aorta. This was confirmed at necropsy, the ecchymosis resulting from involvement of the deep inferior epigastric arteries. *T Semple*

Place of Intermittent Venous Hyperemia in the Treatment of Obliterative Vascular Disease M. H. EVOY and G. DE TAKATS. *Arch intern Med*, 81, 292-300 March, 1948

Intermittent venous hyperemia is indicated after acute arterial occlusion if embolectomy or sympathectomy is not feasible or after either procedure as post-operative treatment, and in patients with chronic arterial occlusion due to arteriosclerosis with and without diabetes, to syphilis, or to thrombo-angitis obliterans. Patients with marked vasospasm, as in the earlier stages of thrombo-angitis, are subjected by the authors to sympathectomy before the treatment is begun. The procedure is contraindicated in acute venous thrombosis, lymphangitis, severe arteriolar obstruction, and in the presence of frank gangrene. The treatment has been found useless for neuropathies, whether ischaemic or metabolic, causalgic states, and sequelae of frost-bite and immersion foot.

A hundred ambulatory patients with intermittent claudication and numbness and tingling of the toes, often associated with angina pectoris, were studied over a period of one year or more, the apparatus being used at home. 35 showed notable improvement with the treatment and 32 slight improvement. Improvement was measured by noting walking ability and venous filling times. The rationale of the treatment is doubtful, but in addition to a small reactive hyperemia a mechanical filling and stretching of the terminal vascular bed takes place during the procedure. *T Semple*

Dicumarol Therapy in Acute Coronary Occlusion with Myocardial Infarction. M. McCALL. *Amer J med Sci*, 215, 612-616, June, 1948

From a study at the Beekman Downtown Hospital, New York, of 71 patients with proven coronary thrombosis the conclusion was reached that dicoumarol is a therapeutic agent of safety and value, it appears to be a preventive of thromboembolic phenomena in cases of acute coronary occlusion associated with myocardial infarction. Prothrombin estimations are essential for safe therapy, but if in spite of these, hemorrhagic complications such as haematuria occur, they will respond to intravenous administration of 60 mg. of menadione. The dosage of dicoumarol is 300 mg. on the first day, with 200 mg. or less according to the prothrombin readings, daily for three or four weeks. *G F Walker*

The Role of Thebesian Drainage in the Dynamics of Coronary Flow in Cases with and without Coronary Sclerosis P. I. HALONEN and A. AHO. *Acta path. microbiol. scand*, 25, 567-572, 1948

Calf hearts and human hearts were perfused with saline and the amount of fluid reaching the various chambers was measured. It was found that drainage into the right heart by way of the venae cavae was quite considerable, and this fact thus lends support to the hypothesis that a reversal of blood flow in these veins may transform them into auxiliaries to the coronary arteries whenever these are narrowed or occluded. No difference in Thebesian drainage was observed between normal hearts and those showing coronary sclerosis. *R Salm*

Treatment of Angina Pectoris by Infiltration of Procaine Solution Around the Superior Cervical Ganglion K. A. DRYAGIN. *Klin Med, Mosk*, 26, No 5, 23-26, May, 1948

Infiltration of 30 ml of 0.25% procaine solution into the neighbourhood of the superior cervical ganglion gave unexpectedly good results in 24 cases of angina pectoris, in 19 the attack was arrested at once and in 3 pain was greatly relieved. After 1 year, 8 out of 12 of these patients were still free from pain. A second infiltration in cases of relapse was less effective. No complications were observed. *S S B Gilder*

Angiocardiography in the Diagnosis of Congenital Heart Disease K. D. KEELE. *Brit J Radiol*, 21, 380-393, Aug., 1948

The author briefly reviews the history of angiocardiography, and describes the technique employed upon a number of children. The patient was anaesthetized with cyclopropane and oxygen. It was found that the best visualization was given by films taken in the left oblique position and in the supine antero-posterior position. There were no untoward reactions. The normal appearances are described and well illustrated by line drawings. The author emphasizes that the cadaver appearance of the interior of the heart chambers is modified by the tendency to formation of an axial stream, by the presence of blood currents, and by dilution of the contrast medium.

He describes 5 cases of congenital heart lesion. These included 3 cases of patent ductus arteriosus, 1 accompanied by complete heart block, 1 by pulmonary stenosis, and 1 by a patent interauricular septum. In one of these cases the communicating channel between pulmonary artery and aorta was visualized directly. A case of coarctation of the aorta is well illustrated and the defect in the interventricular septum in a fifth case is clearly shown.

In the author's view, when a lesion is present for which, on clinical grounds, surgery is the treatment of choice, angiocardiography is indicated, both for accurate diagnosis and to reveal any co-existing abnormalities. *A M Rackow*

Regulation of the Circulation in Malnutrition H REINDELL and H KLEPZIG *Z ges inn Med*, 3, 193-199, April, 1948

Undernourished men and women of all ages generally have a lowered systolic and diastolic blood pressure and a slowed heart rate. The hypotension and bradycardia which appear before any gross intestinal disturbance (such as hunger oedema), are not the result of myocardial damage or of a disturbed circulatory control. They are rather the expression of a special type of control for the sake of circulatory economy, and are associated with a diminished minute volume, a lessening of the elastic resistance, and an increase of the peripheral resistance.

R T Grant

Circulatory Responses to Spinal and Caudal Anesthesia in Hypertension. Relation to the Effect of Sympathectomy. I. Effect on Arterial Pressure R D TAYLOR, R BIRCHALL, A C CORCORAN, and I H PAGE. *Amer Heart J*, 36, 221-225, Aug, 1948

Observations on 43 patients before and after operation lead to the conclusion that the blood-pressure response to spinal and caudal analgesia has no more than a negative value in the selection of patients for sympathectomy.

R T Grant

Circulatory Responses to Spinal and Caudal Anesthesia in Hypertension. Relation to the Effect of Sympathectomy. II. Effect on Renal Function A C CORCORAN, R D TAYLOR, and I H PAGE. *Amer Heart J* 36 226-240, Aug, 1948

High spinal or caudal analgesia which materially reduces blood pressure in hypertensive patients usually causes renal vasodilatation, resulting in increased renal blood flow and a slight decrease in glomerular filtration rate. This is inconsistent with the view that essential hypertension is a compensation for increased renal vascular resistance. The renal vascular response to analgesia is not a positive guide to the selection of patients for sympathectomy.

R. T. Grant

A Comparative Evaluation of Tetraethylammonium Chloride and Sodium Amytal in Patients with Hypertensive Cardiovascular Disease J G TAMACNA and C A POINDEXTER. *Amer J med Sci*, 215, 651-654 June, 1948

The effects on systolic and diastolic blood pressure of

intravenous injection of tetraethyl-ammonium chloride and the standard sodium amytal test were compared in 68 hypertensive subjects. Injections of 2 ml (0.2 mg) of tetraethyl ammonium chloride were given intravenously over a period of 1 to 1½ minutes and the blood pressure was recorded until the initial level was regained. The lowest level was reached 1 to 3 minutes after the injection, and a smaller secondary fall was usual about 10 minutes after the injection. There is a parallel fall in systolic and diastolic pressures. In a comparison of the fall in the diastolic pressure in the two tests it was found that the difference was less than 15 mm in 51 cases, 15 to 30 mm in 13 cases and above 30 mm in 4 cases. The largest discrepancies occurred in cases of malignant hypertension, the fall usually being greater with tetraethyl ammonium chloride. Reactions were not important, but were most noticeable in patients with malignant hypertension.

The authors regard the test as an advance on the sodium amytal test in the assessment of cases for sympathectomy in view of its greater convenience and on the theoretical grounds that tetraethyl ammonium chloride acts by blocking impulses at the sympathetic ganglia.

J W Litchfield

Observations on Micro nodular Pulmonary Radiological Shadows. Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension C LAUBRY, J LENÈGRE and L ABBA. *Bull Soc méd Hop Paris* 64, 741-749, June 1948

Fine nodular shadows disseminated throughout the lung fields in association with mitral stenosis are occasionally seen on radiological examination and have been described in Britain by Anglin, Elkeles, and Gumpert. Five further cases are here described and discussed and the literature reviewed. The small hard shadows are characteristically most densely aggregated in the mid zones and there is a generalized fibre mesh appearance of the lung with marked hilar congestion. The condition is seen most commonly in males between the ages of 20 and 40 with mitral stenosis and frequent haemoptyses. In one case histological examination at necropsy showed that the nodules consisted of masses of large heart failure cells full of iron pigment clumped together in the alveoli and their walls. There was also much extracellular pigment. It was previously thought that the nodules consisted merely of aggregations of heart failure cells due to capillary stasis but here the importance is stressed of repeated haemoptyses and subsequent phagocytosis of the red blood corpuscles.

F G Sita Lundén

CARDIAC INFARCTION WITH BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

BY

W SOMERVILLE AND PAUL WOOD

From the Institute of Cardiology, London

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When cardiac infarction is complicated by bundle branch block, the electrocardiogram may or may not show the features characteristic of myocardial injury. Interference with conduction through the left branch of the bundle of His usually suppresses pathological Q waves and other RS-T segment or T wave changes in the standard and unipolar limb leads and in chest leads, it may then be impossible to make a cardiographic diagnosis of cardiac infarction. When a conduction defect involves the right branch, however, cardiographic signs of cardiac infarction can, as a rule, still be recognized (Wilson *et al*, 1947).

The association of cardiac infarction and bundle branch block is not uncommon (Oppenheimer and Rothschild, 1917, Applebaum and Nicholson, 1935, Comeau *et al*, 1938, Fischer, 1938, Master *et al*, 1938, Moia and Acevedo, 1945). Since the majority of these reports were published, the use of multiple chest leads has permitted a higher degree of precision in the diagnosis of cardiac infarction and in the localization of intraventricular conduction defects, and it is likely that in the future the association of these two conditions will be diagnosed more frequently and with greater accuracy (Wilson *et al*, 1944). The subject is of considerable importance, not only from the viewpoint of practical diagnosis, but also because cardiac infarction complicated by bundle branch block has a mortality almost twice as great as that of infarction with normal intraventricular conduction (Master *et al*, 1938).

The object of this investigation was to determine the frequency with which the electrocardiographic signs of cardiac infarction could be recognized in the presence of bundle branch block and to discover what factors tended to prevent their suppression

MATERIAL

The electrocardiograms and case-notes that form the basis of this report were obtained from the

records of Hammersmith Hospital, the London Hospital, and the National Heart Hospital. The majority of the patients concerned, however, were examined and investigated by one or other of the writers. A number of patients who had been under observation before the war could not be subsequently traced. Follow-up studies are therefore incomplete.

Generally the diagnosis of cardiac infarction was based on a typical clinical history, when this was lacking, the diagnosis depended on X-ray evidence of ventricular aneurysm or on the demonstration of an infarct at necropsy. Bundle branch block was recognized according to the criteria laid down by Wilson and his co-workers, namely —

“ when the QRS interval measures 0.12 second or more and the QRS complex in lead I is monophasic and consists of a broad, slurred, flat-topped or bifid deflection, left bundle branch block is usually present. When the QRS interval measures 0.12 second or more and the QRS complex in lead I is biphasic or triphasic and ends with a broad, slurred or notched S deflection the block is usually in the right bundle. When the heart is in the vertical position the limb leads may suggest that right branch block is present when the præcordial curves are characteristic of left branch block, and vice versa. When the QRS interval measures 0.12 second or more and the præcordial electrocardiogram shows some but not all of the features typical of right or left branch block the conduction defect cannot be located with certainty ” (Wilson *et al*, 1944)

RESULTS

The present series consisted of 60 cases of cardiac infarction and bundle branch block, and was divided into two groups depending on whether the electro-

cardiogram revealed evidence of both cardiac infarction and bundle branch block, or of bundle branch block only. The composition of the two groups is presented in Table I.

The main features of the 41 cases showing cardiographic evidence of both cardiac infarction and bundle branch block are set down in Table II.

CARDIAC INFARCTION AND LEFT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

There were 33 cases with a clinical history of cardiac infarction and an electrocardiogram showing left bundle branch block. In sixteen of these (48 per cent) the cardiogram also revealed abnormal Q waves, RS-T segment deviations, or altered T waves characteristic of cardiac infarction.

The relative frequency of such signs in the various leads taken are set down in Table III (anterior infarction) and Table IV (posterior infarction).

Anterior Infarction

In experiments on dogs, Wilson and his co-workers have shown that when the left branch of the bundle of His is interrupted, direct leads from the epicardial surface of a left ventricular transmural infarct record the initial positive potential of the left ventricular cavity and therefore cannot show a Q wave. When the infarct includes the ventricular septum, however, the initial negative potential of the endocardial surface of the right ventricle may be transmitted through the infarcted—and hence electrically inert—septum to the cavity of the left ventricle. Then leads facing the left ventricular surface may show an initial negative deflection (Q wave) characteristic of cardiac infarction (Wilson *et al*, 1944, Sodeman *et al*, 1944).

In all but one of the 12 cases in which a cardiographic diagnosis of anterior infarction was made, a Q wave was present in lead I and in leads taken over the left præcordium (Fig 1). A similar change was found in the unipolar left arm lead (VL) in five of the six cases in which it was taken. When present in the left præcordial leads, Q may be expected in leads I and VL, but cannot be guaranteed (Wilson, 1936, Master *et al*, 1938). Septal infarction was found in all three of our cases of left bundle branch block with a Q in lead I that were examined post-mortem.

RS-T segment deviation in greater or less degree and abnormal T waves usually accompanied abnormal Q waves (Fig 2), only one example (Case 2) was encountered where a diagnosis of infarction could be made from the RS-T segment or T wave in the absence of a Q wave. Marked RS-T segment elevation and coving is a feature of fresh infarction with left bundle branch block as well as with normal conduction (Bach, 1930, Master *et al*, 1938, Vela, 1944, Moia and Acevedo, 1945, and others) and has been demonstrated experimentally in animals (Hill, 1934). For a time it may be the only clear sign of infarction, preceding the appearance of Q, or the latter may be indistinct or fail to develop. It follows that if an electrocardiogram can be obtained within a few hours or days of infarction, a cardiographic diagnosis of infarction will be possible in a correspondingly higher proportion of cases despite the left bundle branch block. As a rule, however, the RS-T segment depression in lead I typical of left bundle branch block tends to neutralize the RS-T elevation of anterior infarction, and this segment is usually isoelectric or only slightly elevated or depressed (Fig 2). RS-T segment elevation is not necessarily confined to the

TABLE I
ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC FINDINGS IN 60 CASES OF BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK WITH HISTORY OR OTHER EVIDENCE OF CARDIAC INFARCTION

Electrocardiogram	Sex		Age (av)	Left bundle branch block				Right bundle branch block			
	Male	Female		Ant	Post	Ant and post	Total	Ant	Post	Ant and post	Total
Cardiac infarction and bundle br block (41 cases)	35	6	60	12	4	0	16	14	10	1	25
Bundle br block only (19 cases)	15	4	63	—	—	—	17	—	—	—	2
Total (60 cases)	50	10	61.5	—	—	—	33	—	—	—	27

TABLE II

CASES OF CARDIAC INFARCTION SHOWING ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC EVIDENCE OF BOTH CARDIAC INFARCTION AND BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

Case No	Sex	Age	Date of infarct	Date of electrocardiogram	Electrocardiogram						Site of infarct at necropsy ³
					Leads taken ²	QRS (sec)	Abnormal Q	Deviation of RS-T	Abnormal T		
Left Bundle Branch Block Anterior Infarction											
1	M	60	Indef	27/1/37	No chest leads	0.44	I		I		Antero-septal
12	M	53	10/11/47	13/11/47	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0.12		I, III VL V5	I VL V5		
3	F	69	Jan. 1945	5/1/48	CR7-1	0.12	I CR5-2	II CR6-2	I II CR7-2		
4	F	61	7/5/46	8/5/46	V5, V3, V1	0.12	I V3		I V5, V3		
5	M	60	13/11/46	13/5/47	VL, VR, VF V6-1	0.16	I VL V5	V5, V3, V1	I VL		
6	M	73	26/12/46	28/12/46	V5, V3, V1	0.12	I V5 V3, V1	V6-3	I		
7	M	33	July 1944	4/2/47	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0.12	I, II VL V5	V5, V3	I, II VL V5		
18	M	40	July 1947	17/11/47	VL, VR, VF V6-1	0.12	I VL V6-5		I VL V6-4		Antero-septal
9	M	57	Indef	5/4/45	IV R	0.12	I, II IV R		I, II		
10	M	68	(a) 6/4/47 ¹ (b) 5/10/47 (c) 10/1/48	10/1/48	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0.12	I VL V5	V5	I		Ant (recent) Post (old) I-V septum (recent and old)
11	M	59	Indef	10/2/48	V6, IV, V, V2, V1	0.16	I, II V6-5	IVV, V2, V1	I V6		
12	M	45	25/2/48	25/5/48	aVL, aVR, aVF V6-1	0.12	I VL V6-3	I V6-3			
Left Bundle Branch Block Posterior Infarction											
16	M	62	Indef	2/8/46	CR7, CR4	0.12	II, III CR7, CR4	III	III		
17	F	45	23/11/46	27/11/46	V5, V3, V1	0.12	III	III	III		
18	F	59	(a) Aug 47 ¹ (b) 20/1/48	22/1/48	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0.14	II, III VF	I II, III VL, VF V5 ³	II, III VF		
19	M	60	3/9/47	9/9/47	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0.12	II, III VF	I, II, III V5 ²	II, III V1 ⁶ VF		
Right Bundle Branch Block Anterior Infarction											
20	M	63	(a) Jan 1946 (b) 25/2/47 (c) 27/2/47	25/2/47	V5, V3, V1	0.12	V5, V3, V1	V5, V3			Antero-septal (recent) Posterior (old) Antero-septal (recent) Posterior (old)
21	M	81	29/11/47	10/12/47	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0.12	V3, V1	V3	V5, V3		

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TABLE II—continued

Case No	Sex	Age	Date of infarct	Date of electrocardiogram	Electrocardiogram					
					Leads taken ²	QRS (sec)	Abnormal Q	Deviation of RS-T	Abnormal T	Site of infarct at necropsy ³
<i>Right Bundle Branch Block Anterior Infarction—continued</i>										
22	M	56	20/12/35	21/12/35	IVR, CR2, CR1	0 16	CR2-1	IV R	IV R	Antero-septal
23	M	81	Indef	29/9/46	V5, V3, V1	0 16	I V5, V3, V1	CR2-1 V5	CR2-1 V3	
24	M	79	(a) 3/9/36 (b) Oct 1936 (c) 14/11/36	15/1/48	VL, VR, VF V6-1	0 16	I VL V6-1			
25	M	58	Indef	23/3/44	IV R	0 14	I	V3-1	V6-1 I	Antero-septal
26	M	61	May 1937	July 1937	No chest leads	0 12	I		IV R	
27	M	54	16/5/47	25/9/47	VL, VF V5, V3, V1	0 14	I V3, V1		I V3, V1	
28	M	59	Indef	8/4/48	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0 16	I VL V5, V3, V1	I		Antero-septal
29	M	39	24/12/47	6/4/48	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0 16	I VL V5, V3	V5, V3	V3, V1	
30	M	51		5/4/48	aVL, aVR, aVF V7-1, V3R	0 12	aVL V5-1 V3R	V5 I aVL V3	V5	
31	M	55	21/4/48	12/5/48	V5, V3 V1	0 12	V1			Antero-septal (recent) Posterior (old)
32	M	77	10/12/47	13/1/48	VL VR, VF V6-1	0 16	I VL V5-2			
33	M	63	29/3/48	3/5/48	VL, VR, VF V5, V3, V1	0 16	I VL V5, V3	V3		
<i>Right Bundle Branch Block Posterior Infarction</i>										
40	M	61	(a) 1940 (b) 27/7/43	8/1/48	CR7-1	0 16	II, III	II III	II III	Anterior, posterior and septal
41	F	69	Jan 1938	7/3/38	No chest leads	0 16	II III	III	II, III	
42	M	51	4/9/46	25/9/46	CR7, CR4, CR1	0 12	II III	III	III	
43	M	67	Oct 1947	12/12/47	VL VR, VF V7-1	0 14	II III VF	III VF	II III VF	
44	F	64	(a) Feb 1946 (b) 28/6/46	9/8/46	CR7, IV R	0 16		II, III	II III	
45	M	61	Indef	17/2/41	IV R	0 12	II, III	II, III	II	
46	M	67	(a) May '45 (b) 5/10/47	9/7/45 11/10/47	No chest leads CR7, CR4 ⁷	0 14 0 12	II III III	II, III	II III CR7	
47	M	45	Feb 1945	18/7/47	CR7, CR3 CR2	0 14	II III CR7	II, III	II III	
48	M	54	12/12/47	13/2/48	CR7-1	0 14	II III	II III	II III	
49	M	52	15/3/44	20/3/44	IV R, CF2	0 16	II, III	IV R ⁴		
50	M	68		24/3/48	VL, VR, VF V6-1	0 12	II III VF			

¹ Dead ² Standard limb leads were taken in all cases ³ Anterior and Posterior refer to left ventricle
⁴ Electrocardiogram showed posterior infarction with normal intraventricular conduction
⁵ Marked depression of RS-T segment ⁶ Abnormally tall T waves present in lead VI
⁷ Left bundle branch block ⁸ In IV R, QRS and RS-T segment indicated involvement of apical region

TABLE III

ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC SIGNS OF ANTERIOR INFARCTION
COMPLICATED BY LEFT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

Abnormal Q	RS-T Deviation	Abnormal T
	<i>Standard limb leads (12 cases)</i>	
11	3	11
	<i>Chest leads (10 cases)</i>	
9	8	6
	<i>Unipolar limb leads (6 cases)</i>	
5	1	4

TABLE IV

ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC SIGNS OF POSTERIOR INFARCTION
COMPLICATED BY LEFT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

Abnormal Q	RS-T Deviation	Abnormal T
	<i>Standard limb leads (4 cases)</i>	
4	4	4
	<i>Chest leads (4 cases)</i>	
1	2	1
	<i>Unipolar limb leads (2 cases)</i>	
2	1	2

acute stages of the infarct but may persist for months or years. In eight of our twelve cases in this group, prominent RS-T elevation in lead I and/or the left chest leads was present for 2 days (Case 10), 9 days (Case 4), 2 weeks (Cases 2 and 6), 2-3 months (Cases 11 and 12), and 6 months (Case 5). In the eighth case conspicuous RS-T segment deviation was still evident in leads CR5-2 three years after the infarct (Fig 3A) and in Case 11 in leads V4-2 five years after the infarct (Fig 3B). Persistent RS-T deviation has been described as a sign of cardiac aneurysm (Nordenfelt, 1939, Wilson *et al*, 1944b), but this could not be detected in any of our cases.

Primary T wave changes associated with anterior cardiac infarction usually cannot be recognized in the presence of left bundle branch block, for the latter produces strong T wave inversion in lead I and in leads taken over the left ventricle. In no case did we feel justified in making a diagnosis of cardiac infarction by virtue of T wave changes alone.

Care must be taken in interpreting chest lead curves taken from positions C1 and C2 in uncomplicated left bundle branch block since these leads

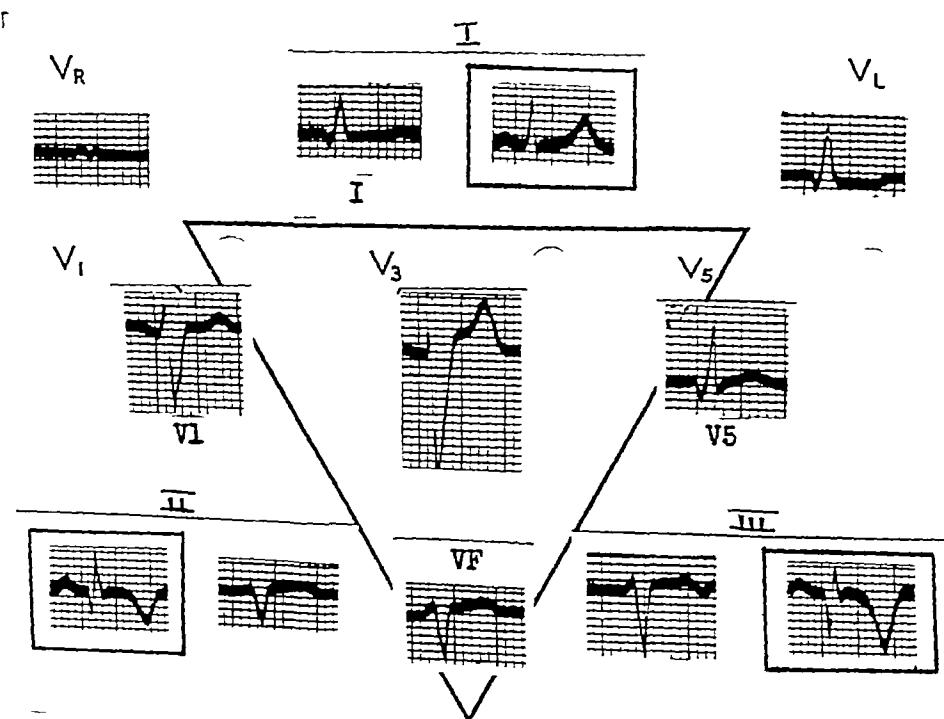


FIG 1 — Anterior cardiac infarction and left bundle branch block. Previous standard leads, outlined in black, show the original posterior infarct. A prominent Q wave due to involvement of the septum is seen in lead V5, and is transmitted to lead VI and to standard lead I. Autopsy confirmation.

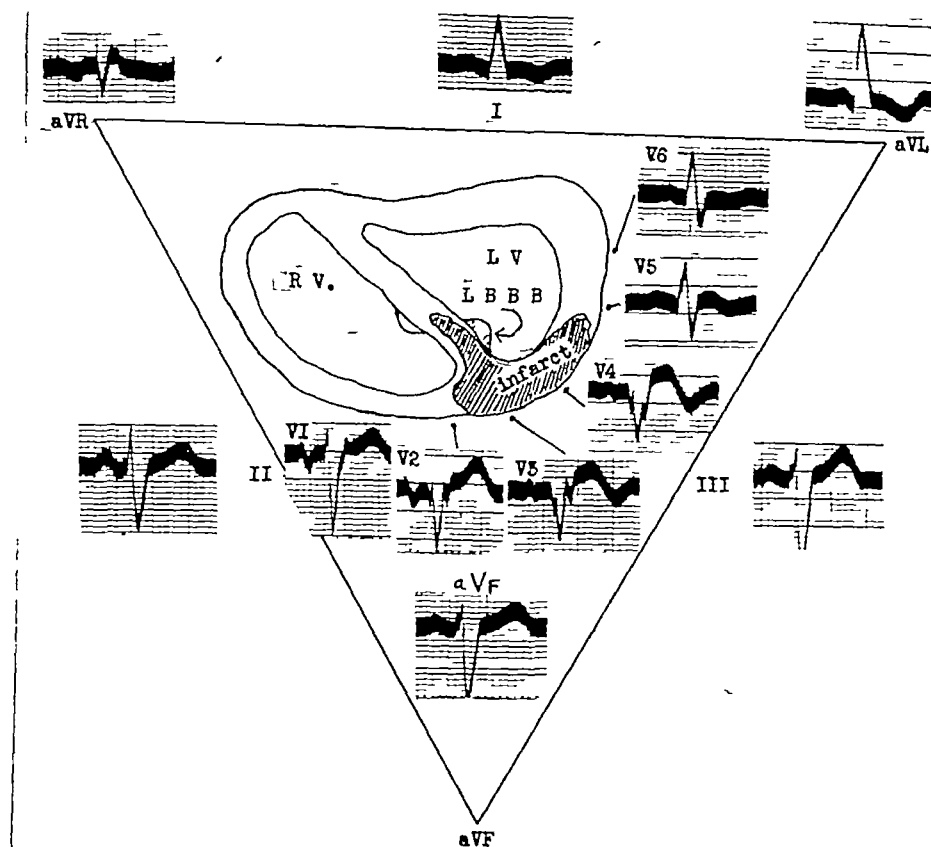


FIG 2—Anterior cardiac infarction and left bundle branch block. Elevation of the RS-T segment due to the infarct, seen best in leads V3 and V4 neutralizes any tendency towards RS-T depression due to left bundle branch block, thus in leads V1 and standard lead I the RS-T segment is at the isopotential level. The small Q wave in these two leads is due to septal infarction. Autopsy confirmation.

may show an inconspicuous R wave or may consist of a monophasic downward deflection followed by an elevated RS-T segment more or less simulating recent anterior or antero septal infarction. Such complexes are sometimes known as "false infarction curves" (Mortensen, 1940).

Convincing evidence that left bundle branch block may suppress the signs of infarction was obtained in certain cases in which the block was transient (Fig 4), or intermittent (Fig 5).

Cardiographic signs of cardiac infarction obscured by left bundle branch block may be unmasked when a premature ventricular contraction originating on the blocked side allows both ventricles to contract simultaneously. Wilson and Herman (1921) were able to demonstrate the presence of an infarct in the experimental animal by this means and explained

the physiological mechanism. We have encountered several examples of this type and others have been reported (Dressler, 1943, Simonson *et al*, 1945).

Posterior Infarction

When posterior infarction is complicated by left bundle branch block the appearance of characteristic Q waves depends as in anterior infarction, on the transmission of the initial negative potential of the right ventricular cavity through an infarcted ventricular septum to the cavity of the left ventricle. This initial negativity is then transmitted through the electrically inert posterior infarct to lead VF and so to leads II and III. But QIII is also seen in at least one-third of cases of uncomplicated left bundle branch block (Sodeman *et al* 1944).

In the four examples of posterior infarction that

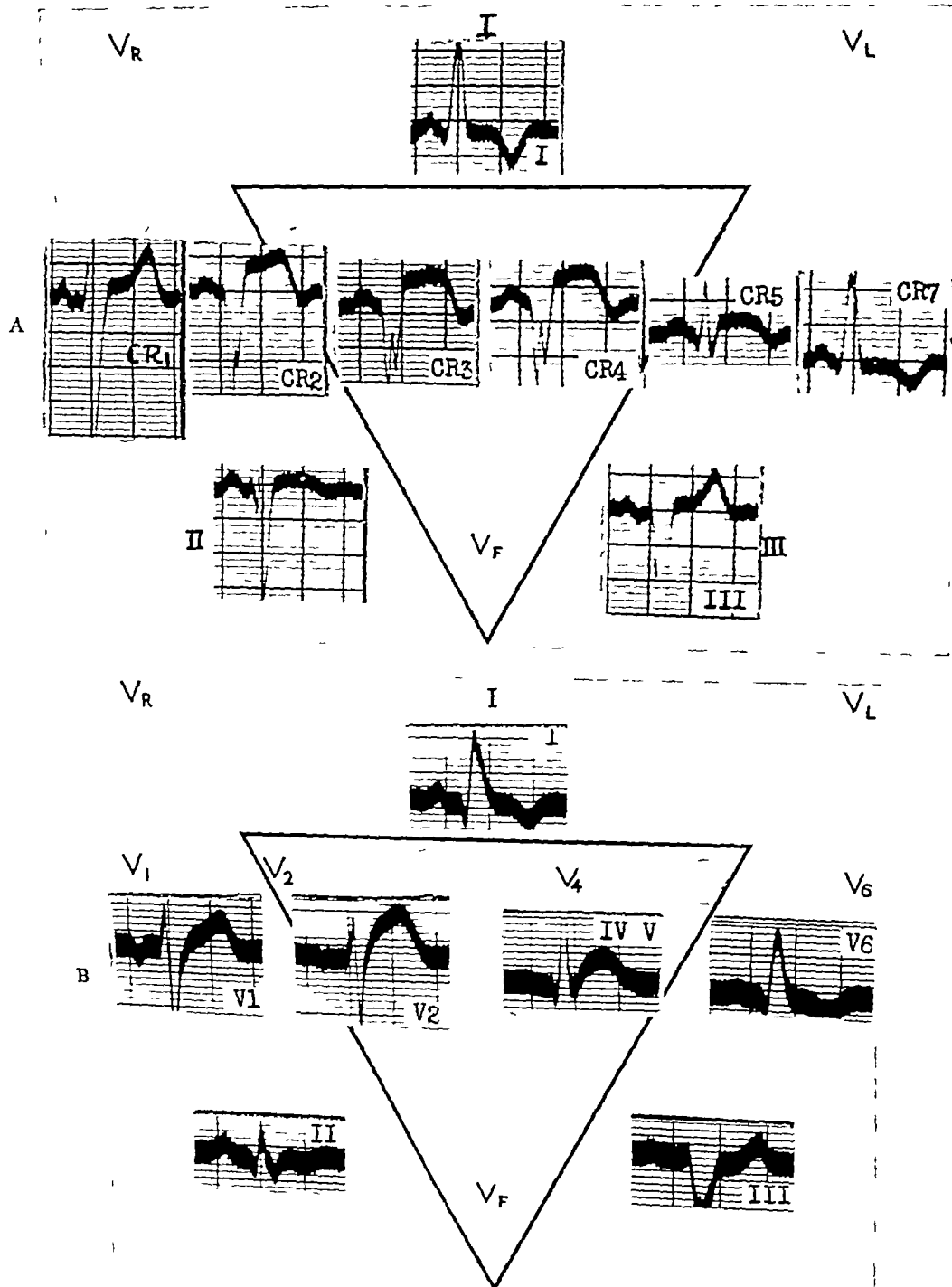


FIG 3—Anterior infarct and left bundle branch block showing persistent elevation of the RS-T segment—three years after the infarct in example (A), and five years after the infarct in example (B) best shown in leads CR₄ and V₄ respectively. The Q wave in left ventricular surface leads or their equivalents in both cases is due to septal infarction.

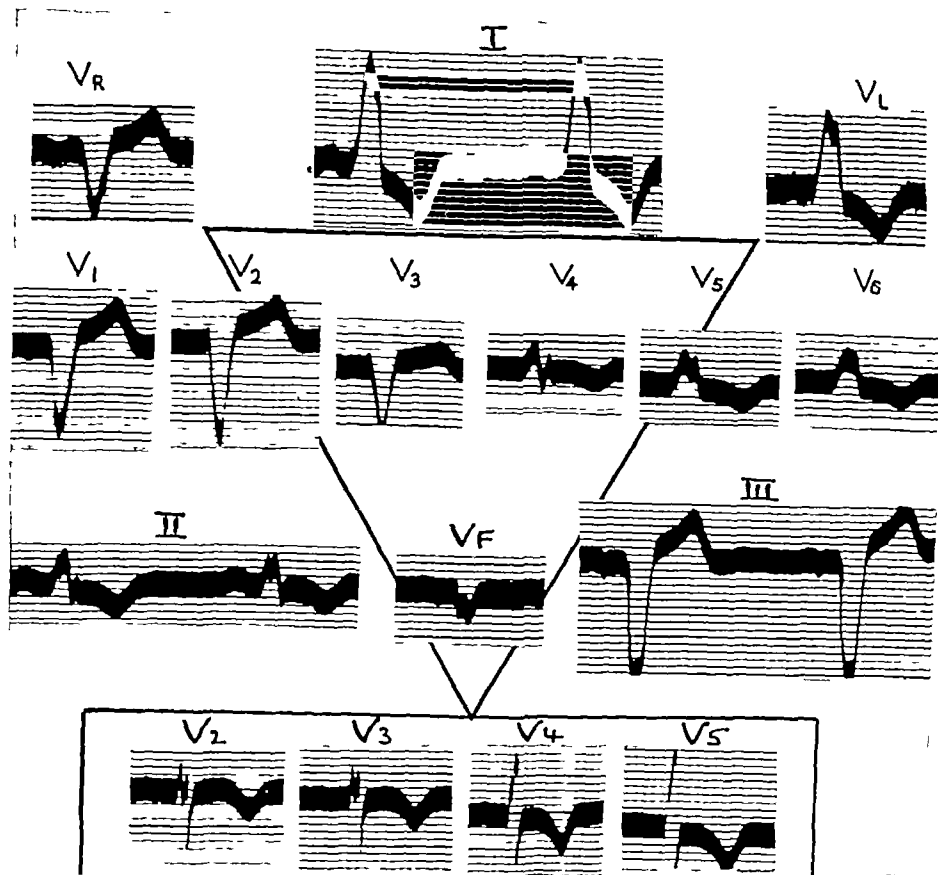


FIG 4—Transient left bundle branch block suppressing the signs of anterior cardiac infarction. When conduction was normal (shown below) the T waves were inverted from V₂ to V₅.

could be diagnosed cardiographically in this series, characteristic Q, RS-T, and T wave changes occurred in lead III. In one instance the curves were taken within a few hours of the onset and revealed RS-T segment elevation in leads II, III, and V_F, with reciprocal depression in leads I, V_L, and V₅ (Fig 6). Proof of septal involvement in these cases is lacking, three of them recovered, and the fourth did not come to necropsy. On the other hand, extensive posterior infarction not involving the septum was demonstrated at necropsy in Case 75. The cardiogram (standard limb leads and V₄R) showed left bundle branch block without the signs of posterior infarction.

Comment

When the different factors are evaluated that tend to permit or suppress the signs of infarction complicated by left bundle branch block, which are discussed below, one may conclude tentatively

that in about one-half of such cases cardiographic confirmation of the infarction will be forthcoming, in the other half, as long as the bundle branch block persists, the cardiographic signs of infarction will be suppressed. The diagnosis must then depend on the history and other clinical evidence.

CARDIAC INFARCTION AND RIGHT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

When right bundle branch block is present the sequence of depolarization of the ventricles is the same as when intraventricular conduction is normal. At the start of ventricular excitation the left ventricular cavity is negative and an infarct should transmit this initial negative potential to the surface in the usual way. Therefore the characteristic Q wave of cardiac infarction should not be suppressed.

In our series there were 27 cases of cardiac infarction complicated by right bundle branch block.

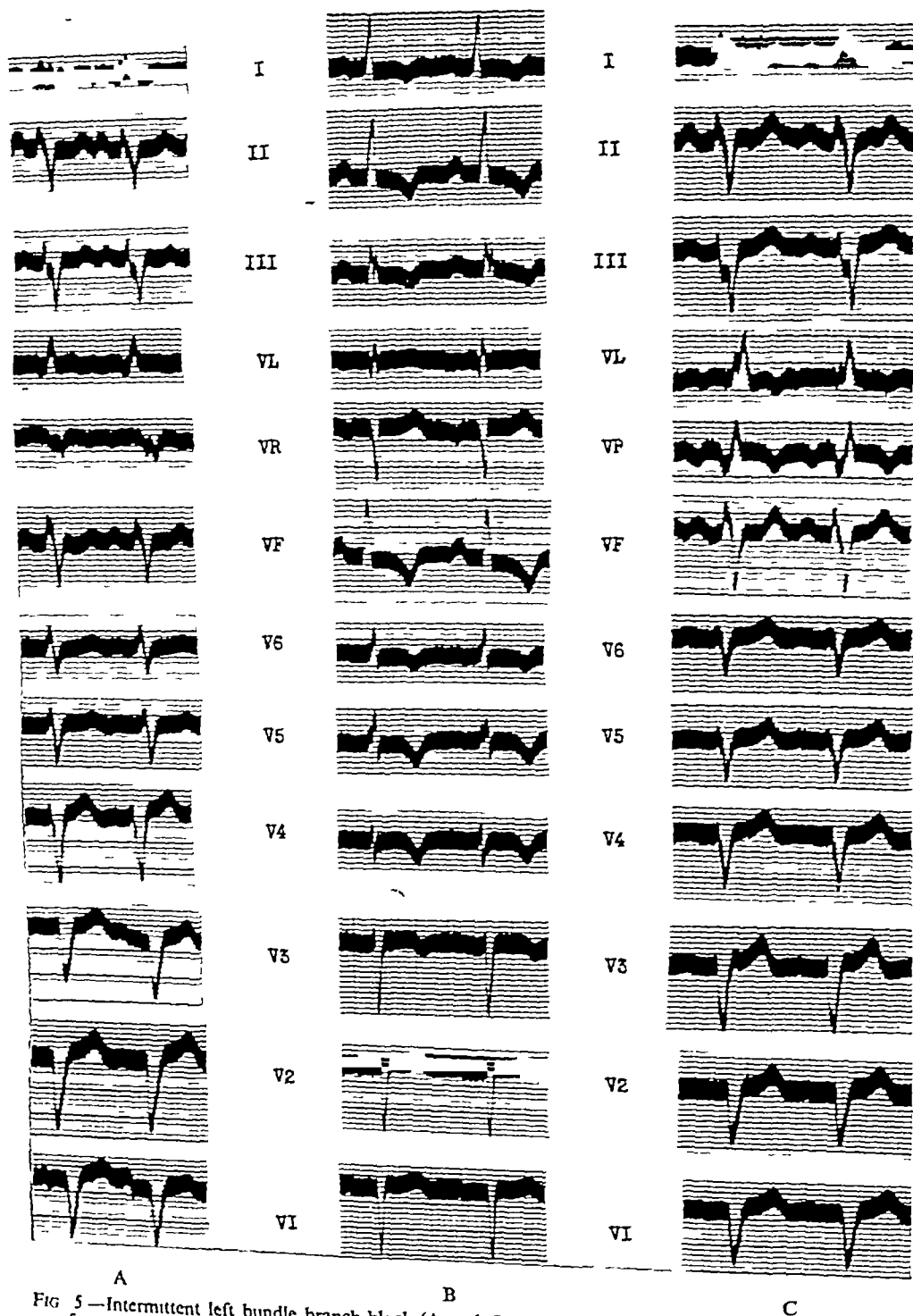


FIG 5—Intermittent left bundle branch block (A and C) suppressing the signs of anterior cardiac infarction. When conduction was normal (B), primary T wave inversion of coronary type was seen from V3-V6. As the heart is electrically vertical, this inversion is transmitted to lead VF and hence to all standard leads

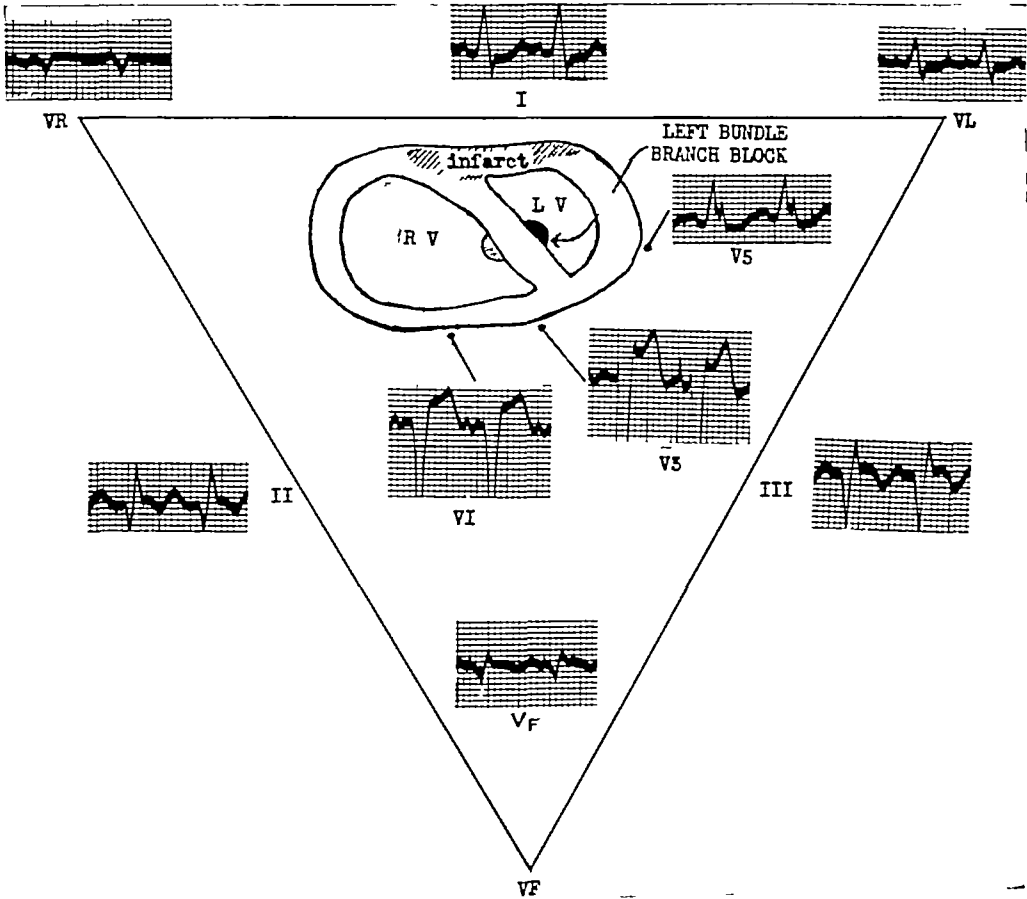


FIG 6 —Posterior cardiac infarction and left bundle branch block. This graph was taken within a few hours of the onset and shows characteristic changes denoting recent posterior infarction

The cardiographic signs of cardiac infarction were present in 25 cases, i.e. in 93 per cent. The relative frequency of these signs in the various leads taken is shown in Table V (anterior infarction) and Table VI (posterior infarction). In six cases the infarct was confirmed at necropsy.

TABLE V		
ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC SIGNS OF ANTERIOR INFARCTION COMPLICATED BY RIGHT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK		
Abnormal Q	RS-T Deviation	Abnormal T
8	Standard limb leads (14 cases)	1
	Chest leads (12 cases)	
12	9	7
	Unipolar limb leads (8 cases)	
6	2	0

TABLE VI		
ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHIC SIGNS OF POSTERIOR INFARCTION COMPLICATED BY RIGHT BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK		
Abnormal Q	RS-T Deviation	Abnormal T
10	Standard limb leads (11 cases)	9
	Chest leads (9 cases)	
1	1	1
	Unipolar limb leads (2 cases)	
2	1	1

ANTERIOR INFARCTION
Eight of the fourteen cases of anterior infarction showed characteristic Q waves in the standard limb leads (Fig 7). This is contrary to the experience of Wilson *et al* (1944), Carlotti (1947) and of Goldberger (1947). RS-T segment deviation and

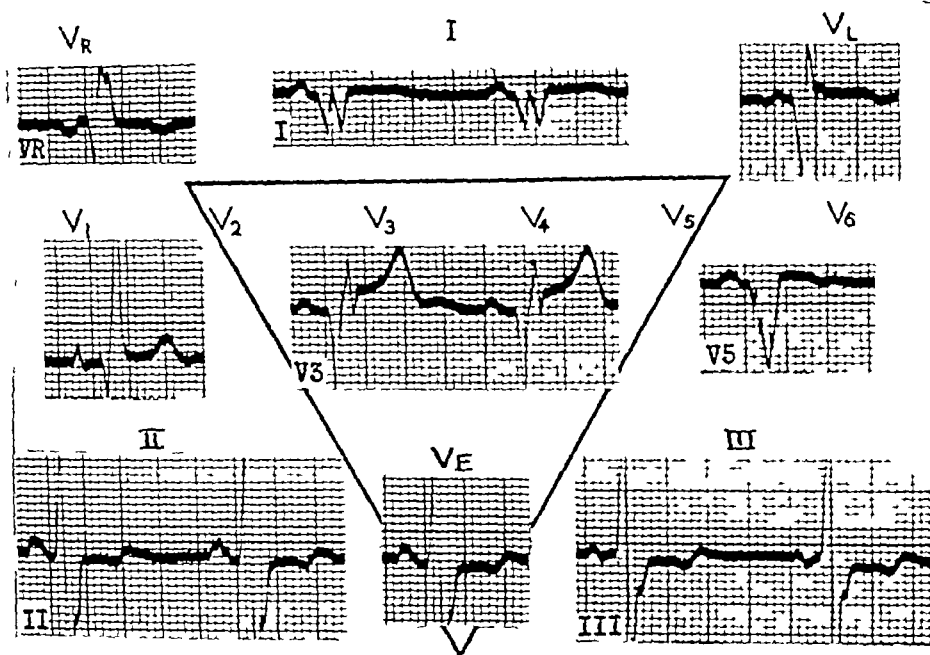


FIG 7—Anterior cardiac infarction and right bundle branch block leads V3, V5, VL and standard lead I. Typical Q waves are seen in

primary T wave changes were commonly absent from the standard limb leads thus in the six cases showing no QI, these leads failed absolutely to show the infarct (Fig 8 and 10)

Multiple chest leads were diagnostic of infarction in the twelve cases in which they were recorded, Q waves being invariably present, and RS-T and T wave changes occurring in the majority (Fig. 9).

The unipolar left arm lead reproduced the Q wave of anterior infarction in six out of eight cases (Fig 9) RS-T and T wave changes were seldom diagnostic. In Case 22 (Fig 10) the

In Case 22 (Fig 10A) no cardiographic evidence of infarction was present six hours after an attack typical of coronary thrombosis. On the following day right bundle branch block (QRS interval measuring 0.16 sec) had developed, evidence of infarction was then obvious in the chest leads but not in the limb leads. The next record, taken nine days later when normal intraventricular conduction had returned, showed the pattern of anterior or antero-septal infarction in lead I and in the chest leads. Serial cardiograms during the next fourteen months revealed gradual reversion towards normal, but monophasic negative initial ventricular complexes persisted in leads CR2 and CR1.

The cardiogram shown in Fig 10B was taken a few hours after the onset of a prolonged attack of cardiac pain in a man aged 63 (Case 20) and dis-

closed right bundle branch block. Diagnostic evidence of extensive anterior infarction was provided by chest leads, but not by limb leads. At necropsy there was a recent infarct involving a large area of the anterior wall of the left ventricle and of the ventricular septum, and an old posterior infarct

The chest leads in Case 23 (Fig. 11A) showed prominent Q waves in leads V5, V3, and V1, in addition to the features of right bundle branch block. The complex recorded over the right precordium (V1) resembled that in lead I, while V5 resembled lead III. Therefore, the heart was electrically vertical. At necropsy a recent infarct was found involving the apex and the lower portion of the ventricular septum. The explanation of the tall R waves following deep Q waves seen in chest leads in cases of anterior infarction associated with right bundle branch block is obscure, because as Goldberger has pointed out (1947), the deep Q wave indicates that the lead in question is facing the infarcted left ventricle, whereas the tall R wave ordinarily occurs in leads that face the epicardial surface of the right ventricle in right bundle branch block.

The cardiograms reproduced in Fig 11B (Case 21) are those of an old man of 81 who developed symptoms of cardiac infarction eleven days previously. The unipolar limb leads showed the heart

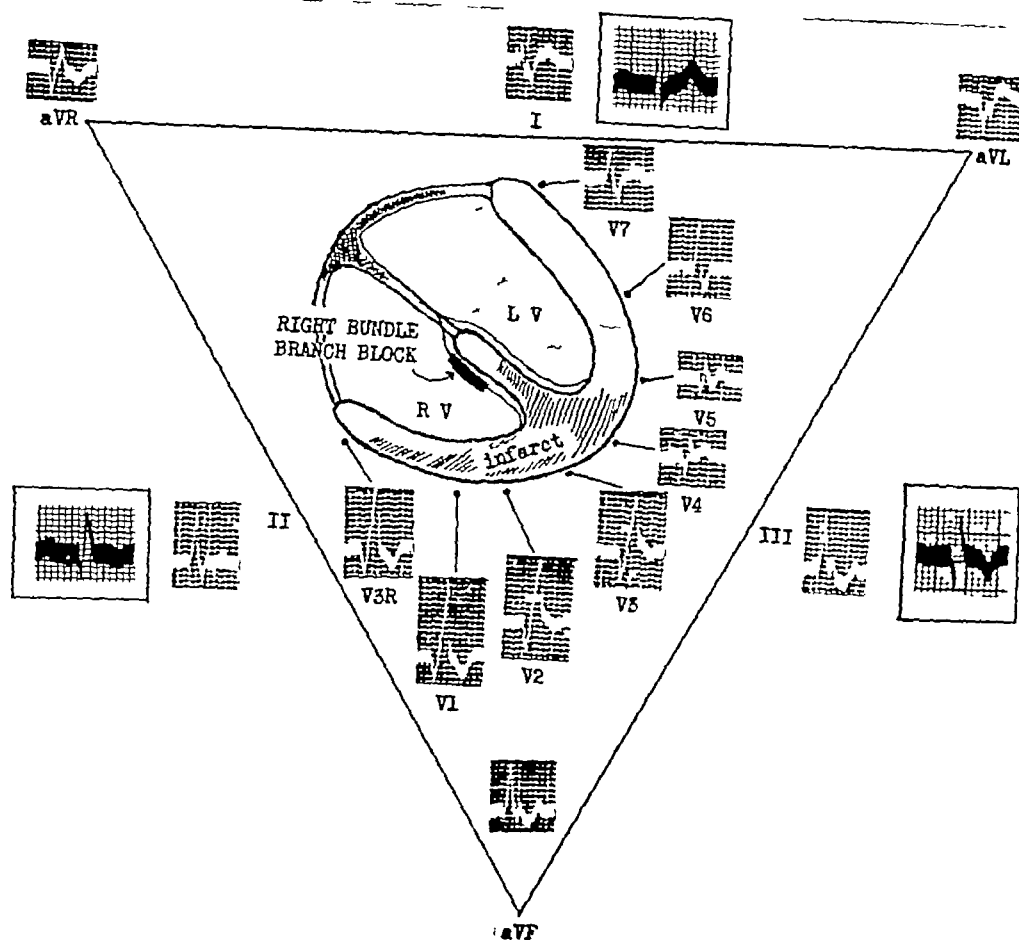


FIG 8—Anterior cardiac infarction and right bundle branch block. Typical Q waves are seen in the chest leads but the standard leads reveal no evidence of the infarct. Standard leads outlined in black were taken previously and represent old posterior infarction. Autopsy confirmation.

to be electrically vertical, and the chest leads pointed to a block in the right bundle branch. Conspicuous deviation of the RS-T segment was seen in lead V3 and small Q waves were present in this lead and in lead V1. The diagnosis was, therefore, right bundle branch block complicating an antero-septal infarct. The patient died a week later and at necropsy this diagnosis was confirmed. In addition an old posterior infarct was demonstrated.

Posterior Infarction

When posterior infarction was associated with right bundle branch block, standard limb leads showed characteristic changes in all 11 cases (Fig 12). Unipolar limb leads were obtained in

only two instances (Cases 43 and 50). Lead VF showed significant Q waves in both, with elevation of the RS-T segment and inversion of the T wave in one of them. Multiple chest leads were taken in 9 cases, but revealed evidence of infarction in only one instance.

When the posterior wall of the left ventricle is infarcted, and normal intraventricular conduction is present, the T wave in lead CR7 is usually inverted (Evans and Hunter, 1943). Although there is no apparent reason why a complicating right bundle branch block should suppress the characteristics of posterior infarction in this lead, an upright T wave was present in lead CR7 in five cases, and in V7 in a fourth (Fig 12 and 13B). The T wave in CR7 was

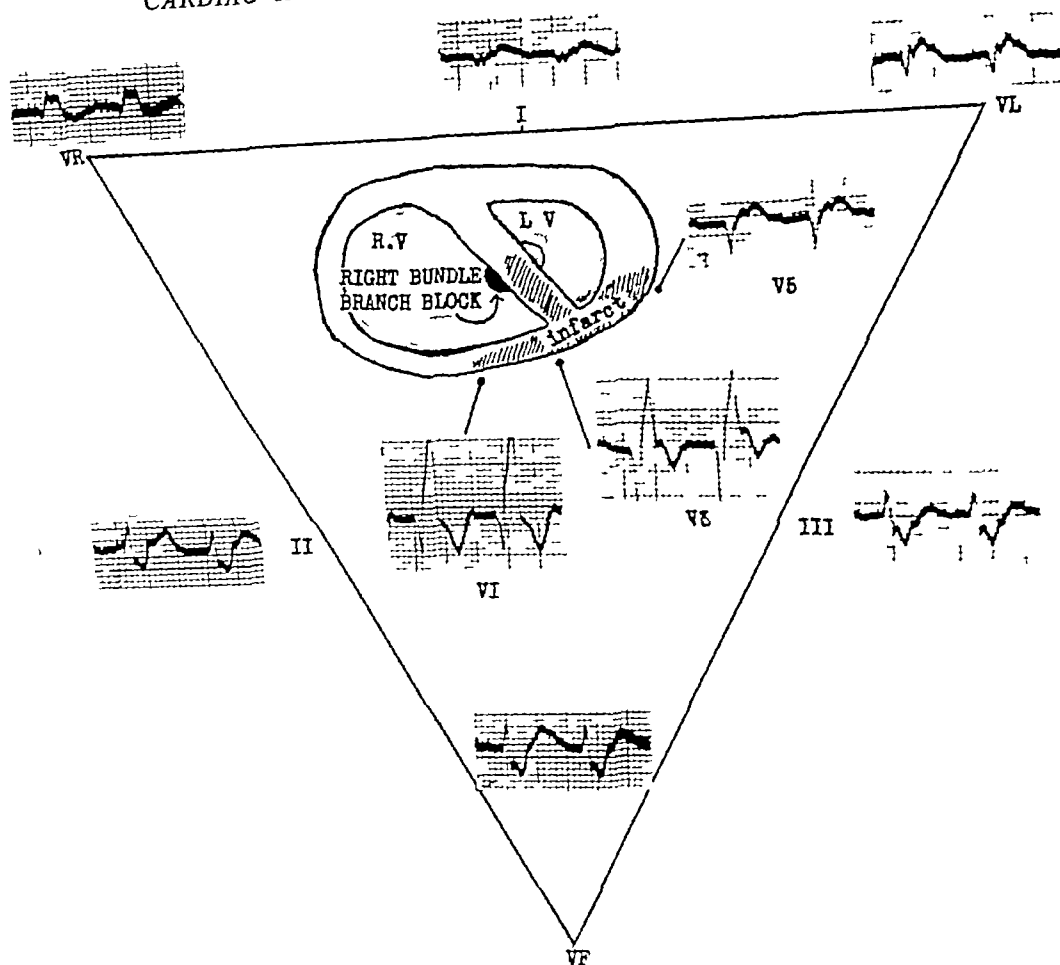


FIG 9—Anterior cardiac infarction and right bundle branch block. Characteristic Q waves and RS-T elevation are seen in V3, V5, VL and standard lead I. Autopsy confirmation.

inverted in the fifth case (Fig 13A). All these records showed indubitable evidence of posterior infarction in other leads.

Some cases with widened and bizarre QRS complexes are the result of fresh infarction distorting the cardiogram of a previous bundle branch block with or without infarction. Alternation of the block between the left and right bundle branches may occur (Master *et al*, 1938) or the pattern may change permanently from one type of block to another. In this respect Case 46 is of interest. A cardiogram taken in July 1945 showed right bundle branch block with a posterior infarct. Two and a half years later, after another attack of prolonged cardiac pain, from which the patient did not recover, a cardiogram showed left bundle branch block (Fig 13B). There was no necropsy.

Occasionally, cardiographic evidence of posterior infarction appears to be suppressed by right bundle branch block. This occurred in Case 76, in which the cardiogram showed right bundle branch block with no more than a shallow Q wave in lead III, yet at necropsy the posterior wall of the left ventricle was found to be thinned and fibrosed over a large area. The ventricular septum was not significantly involved. The circumstances that result in suppression of the signs of posterior infarction with right bundle branch block are not clear. We did not feel that a cardiographic diagnosis of infarction could be based on an isolated Q wave in lead III, because this is encountered in 36 per cent of cases of uncomplicated right bundle branch block (Sodeman *et al*, 1944).

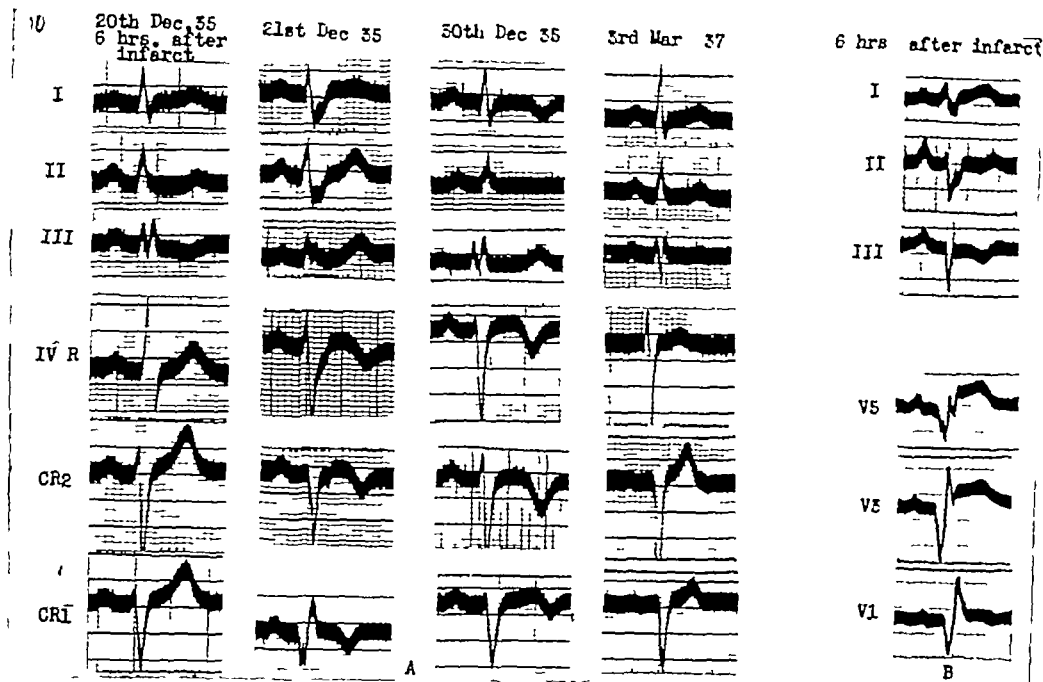


FIG 10—Anterior cardiac infarction and right bundle branch block (A) Serial electrocardiograms showing the development of T wave changes characteristic of anterior infarction these are masked in standard leads when right bundle branch block is fully developed (December 21) (B) Typical changes of acute anterior infarction are seen in chest leads, but are masked by right bundle branch block in standard leads Autopsy confirmation

ANTERIOR AND POSTERIOR CARDIAC INFARCTION COMPLICATED BY BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

Necropsy evidence of anterior and posterior cardiac infarction was available in five cases in this series, three of them complicated by right and two by left bundle branch block. In four of them the electrocardiogram showed signs of anterior or antero septal infarction only, three of these had right (Fig 8 and 11B), and the fourth left bundle branch block (Fig 1). The anterior infarct in each of these four cases was recent and the posterior infarct old. In the fifth (Fig 14) a cardiogram taken six hours after the symptoms of a cardiac infarction showed normal intraventricular conduction with Q waves and depressed S-T segments in leads II and III, and abnormally tall T waves in the chest leads. Five days later, left bundle branch block had developed, as shown in lead CF2 as the heart was vertical, standard leads resemble right bundle branch block. A lead taken over the apex (IV R) was typical of acute anterior infarction. An ante mortem diagnosis of recent anterior infarction in a vertical heart was made but at necropsy posterior infarction was also present.

Thus, in these five cases the features of the acute infarct were revealed in the electrocardiogram, and in four of them the signs of an old posterior infarct were suppressed. We have insufficient data, however, to determine the circumstances that result in the dominance of one infarct and the suppression of another.

PATHOGENESIS OF BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK COMPLICATING CARDIAC INFARCTION WITH AN ACCOUNT OF ELEVEN NECROPSIES

It is reasonable to assume that infarction of the ventricular septum might be associated with bundle branch block because of the intimate anatomical relationship between the septum and the bundle branches. In the experimental animal septal infarction and usually bundle branch block with or without auriculo-ventricular conduction defects may be produced by ligation of the septal artery or of the left coronary artery (Wilson *et al.* 1944) but the production of bundle branch block by this technique is sometimes unsuccessful (Barton and Greenwood 1933). In man the findings are similar. When bundle branch block complicates cardiac infarction

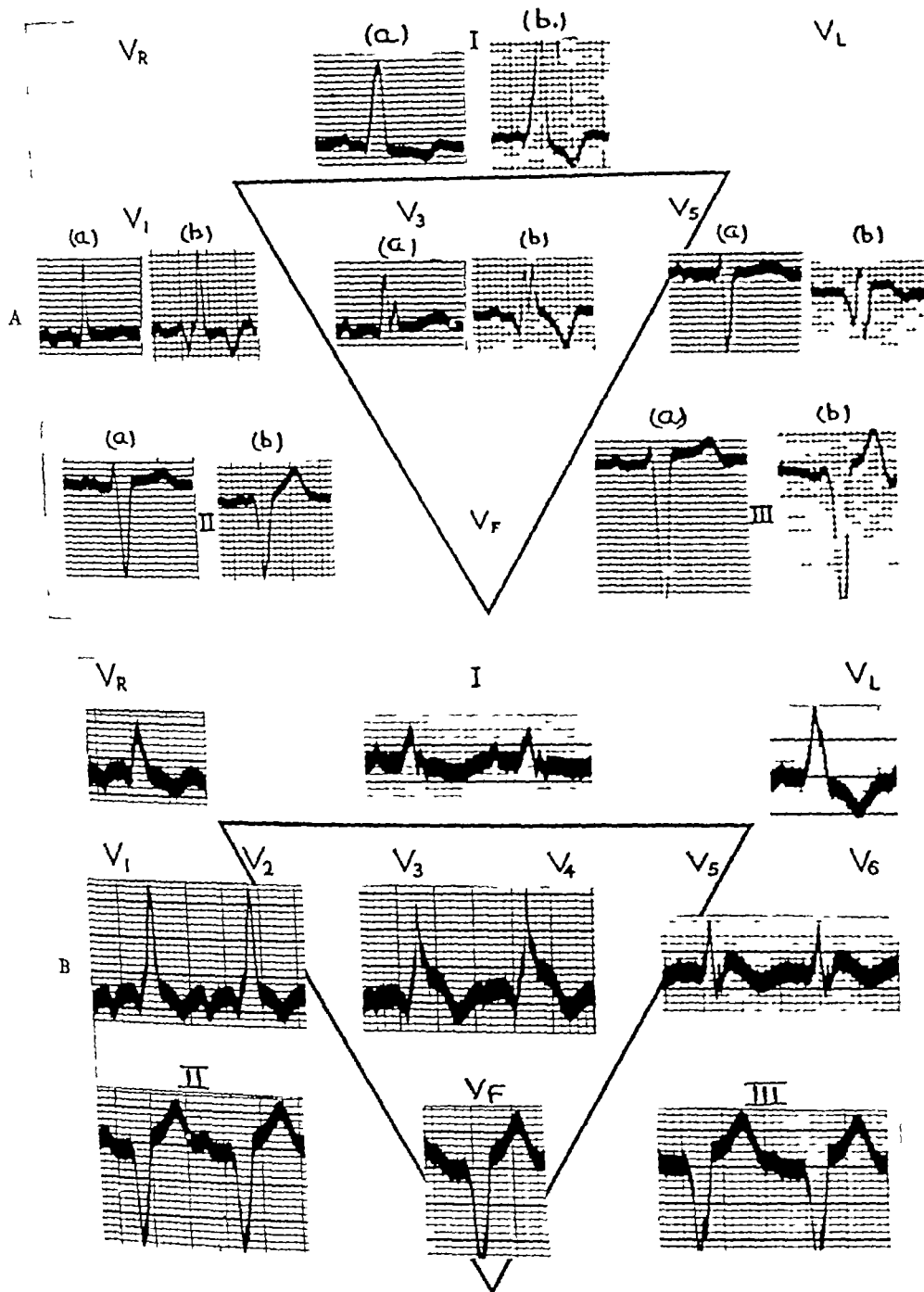


FIG 11—Anterior cardiac infarction and right bundle branch block (A) The control graph (a) was taken on 9/9/46 and shows right bundle branch block with a vertical heart. The second curve (b) taken on 24/9/46 shows prominent Q waves and inverted T waves in all chest leads due to anterior cardiac infarction. (B) Anterior infarct (11 days old) shown in leads V₁ and V₃. The right bundle branch block complex in lead V₁ is transmitted to lead V_L and hence to standard lead I, the heart being electrically vertical. Standard limb leads thus resemble left bundle branch block.

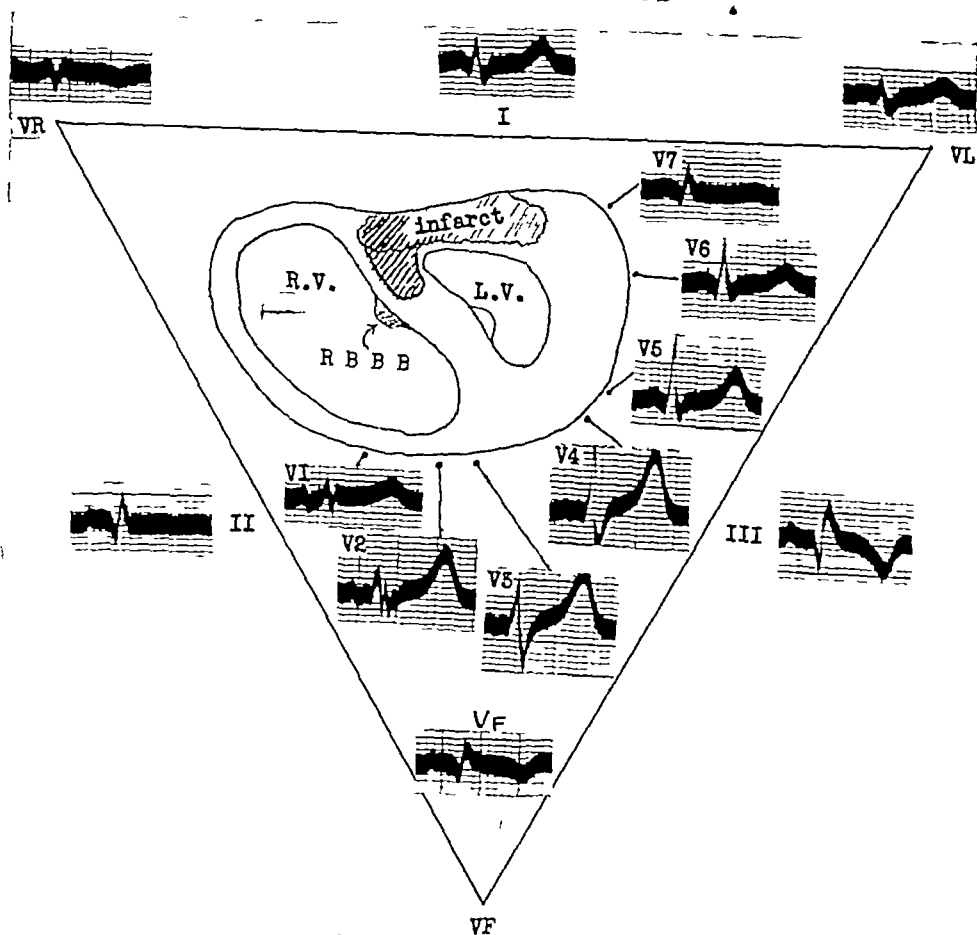


FIG 12—Posterior cardiac infarction and right bundle branch block. Pathological Q waves are well seen in lead VF and in standard leads II and III

the septum is often, but not invariably, involved. In a necropsy study of 30 cases of gross septal infarction, Master *et al* (1937) found that impaired intraventricular conduction had been present in only 12 cases.

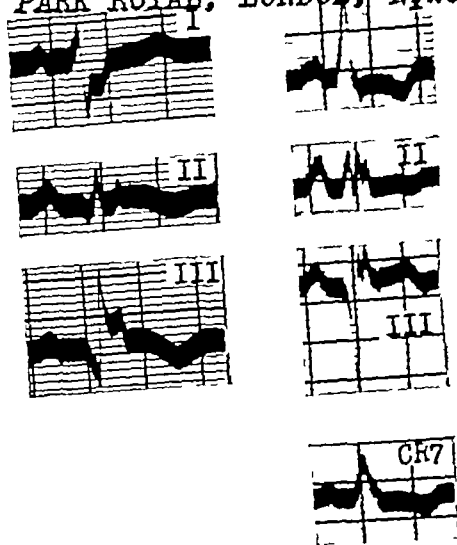
Attempts to correlate the site of coronary occlusion with the occurrence and type of bundle branch block have been reported frequently (White, 1934, Saphir *et al*, 1935, Applebaum and Nicholson, 1935, Barnes, 1935, Pratsicas, 1936, Fischer, 1938, Master *et al*, 1938). Applebaum and Nicholson concluded from their necropsy findings in 11 cases that it was impossible to determine which vessel was occluded by the type of block present, for there was usually severe and extensive involvement of the entire coronary system. Master and his co-workers (1938) also submitted that it was

impossible to locate the site of an infarct from the type of bundle branch block present. Reviewing their findings in 20 cases examined at necropsy, these authors reported a similar incidence of conduction defects whether the left or right coronary artery was occluded. In 16 of their 20 cases however, the infarct did involve the septum. When the QRS interval exceeded 0.14 sec septal infarction was invariable.

The apparent lack of correlation between the situation of coronary occlusion and cardiac infarction, on the one hand and bundle branch block on the other might be explained by the presence of a gradually developed collateral circulation in the areas supplied by vessels showing long standing occlusion (Blumgart and Schlesinger 1940).

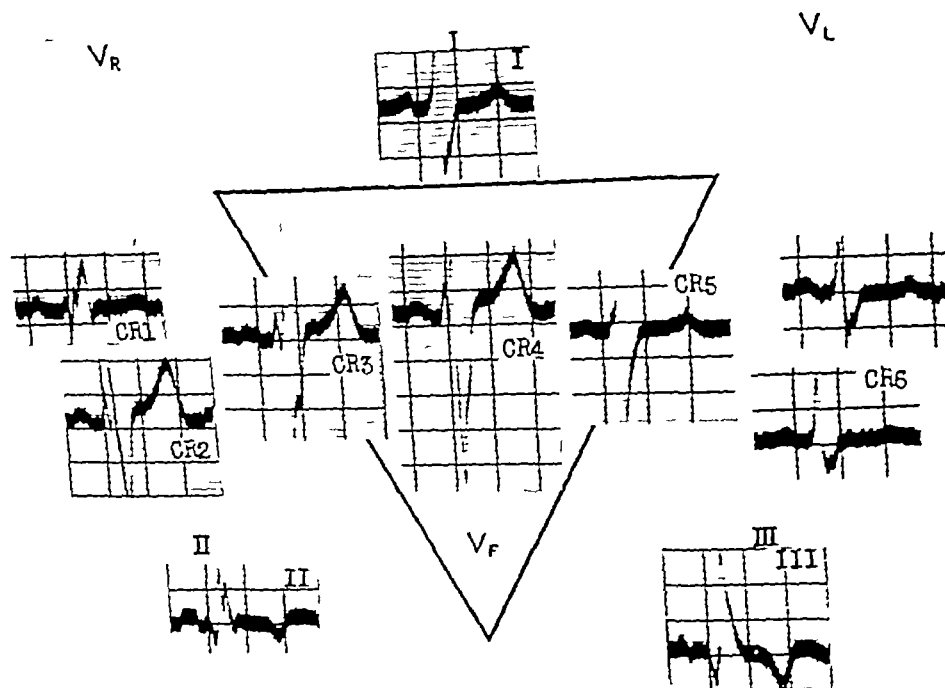
There were 11 necropsies in the present series.

CARDIAC MONITORING WITH BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK
GENERAL HOSPITAL, PARK ROYAL, LONDON, N.W.10.



A

B



C

FIG 13—(A) 9/7/45 showing right bundle branch block and posterior infarction (B) 11/10/47, showing left bundle branch block after fresh posterior infarction (C) Posterior cardiac infarction and right bundle branch block The infarction is shown well in standard leads but not in lead CR7

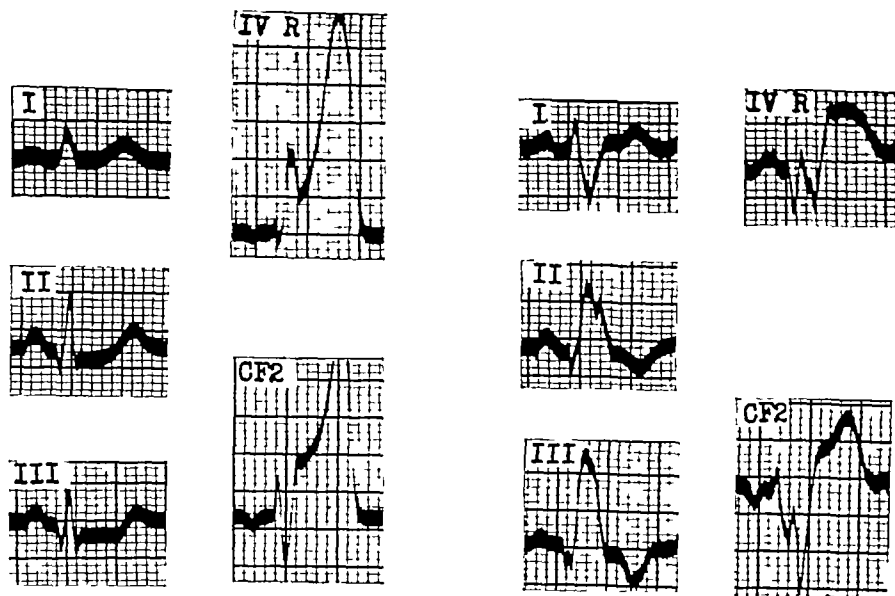


FIG 14—Anterior and posterior infarction associated with left bundle branch block in a vertical heart (A) Normal conduction 6 hours after the onset of lead 4R shows elevation of the R-T segment and an enormous T wave indicating an anterior infarct a few hours old. The Q wave in leads II and III is derived from lead VF (not shown) to which left ventricular surface potentials are transmitted (B) 5 days later Left bundle branch block has developed as shown by lead CF2. The heart being vertical standard leads resemble right bundle branch block. Changes of acute anterior infarction are shown in lead IVR. Necropsy showed both anterior and posterior infarction.

The main findings, summarized in Table VII, confirm the absence of any clear relationship between the vessel occluded, the bundle branch predominantly involved, and the situation of the infarct.

In 9 cases, however, the infarct involved the ventricular septum. In the 2 instances in which the septum escaped the infarct was situated in the posterior wall of the left ventricle the electrocardiogram showed left bundle branch block in one (Case 75) and right bundle branch block in the other (Case 76). In 4 of the 9 cases in which the ventricular septum was infarcted, the QRS interval equalled or exceeded 0.14 second.

In a control study we found septal involvement in 58 of 100 unselected cases of cardiac infarction examined at necropsy. From the figures discussed above it is clear that the septum is involved more frequently (80 per cent) when there is bundle branch block. If pathological Q waves occurred in all cases of cardiac infarction, left bundle branch block would not therefore be expected to obscure the pattern in 80 per cent of cases. The actual figure of 48 per cent found in our analysis more or less harmonizes with these expectations for a minority of infarcts are too shallow to cause Q waves.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Sixty cases with a history or other evidence of cardiac infarction and an electrocardiogram showing bundle branch block have been collected and analysed in order to determine the frequency with which the cardiographic signs of cardiac infarction occur with bundle branch block.

The series comprised 33 examples of left and 27 of right bundle branch block. Cardiographic signs of cardiac infarction were present in 41 cases (68 per cent).

These signs were found in 48 per cent of the cases with left bundle branch block and in 93 per cent of those with right bundle branch block. As a corollary it should be stressed that the signs of infarction were suppressed in approximately half the cases complicated by left bundle branch block.

The belief that significant Q waves in left ventricular surface leads in cases with left bundle branch block denote septal infarction is supported by limited necropsy evidence.

In the presence of left bundle branch block the signs of anterior infarction were revealed as frequently with standard limb leads as with multiple

chest leads and unipolar limb leads In the presence of right bundle branch block, signs of anterior infarction were sometimes seen only in the chest leads

The signs of posterior infarction were practically confined to the standard limb leads and to lead VF whether the block was in the left or right bundle branch

TABLE VII

NECROPSY FINDINGS IN ELEVEN CASES OF CARDIAC INFARCTION AND BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK

Case No	Electrocardiogram			Necropsy
	QRS (sec)	Block	Infarct	
1	0 14	Left	Anterior	<i>Arteries</i> Generalized severe atheroma No thrombosis discovered <i>Infarct</i> Recent infarction of anterior wall of left ventricle and upper three-quarters of ventricular septum Fibrosis involving these areas
8	0 12	Left	Anterior	<i>Arteries</i> Slight atheroma of main vessels Smaller sub divisions showed diffuse widespread atheroma No occlusion <i>Infarct</i> Anterior wall of left ventricle and ventricular septum Diffuse fibrosis involving left ventricle and ventricular septum
10	0 12	Left	Anterior	<i>Arteries</i> Calcified atheroma marked in main arteries Left anterior descending branch and right coronary completely occluded by organized thrombus The left circumflex partially occluded by calcified atheroma <i>Infarct</i> Extensive old infarction of anterior and posterior walls of left ventricle and ventricular septum Recent infarction involving anterior wall and ventricular septum Widespread subendocardial fibrosis of left ventricle
20	0 12	Right	Anterior	<i>Arteries</i> Both right and left coronaries completely occluded and calcified for a distance of 1-2 cm commencing 2 cm beyond their origin <i>Infarct</i> Extensive recent infarction involving postero-inferior two-thirds of ventricular septum, apex and lower one third of anterior wall of left ventricle Whole thickness of anterior wall partially necrotic Old infarction in posterior wall of left ventricle
21	0 12	Right	Anterior	<i>Arteries</i> Left anterior descending and right coronary arteries occluded <i>Infarct</i> Recent extensive infarction involving anterior wall of left ventricle and ventricular septum Old infarction of posterior wall of left ventricle
23	0 16	Right	Anterior	<i>Arteries</i> Generalized atheroma Anterior descending branch of left coronary thrombosed in proximal 3 cm, distal part was laminated and calcified and proximal part fresh and homogeneous <i>Infarct</i> Apex of left ventricle and lower part of ventricular septum recently infarcted.
28	0 16	Right	Anterior	<i>Arteries</i> Anterior descending branch of left coronary occluded in proximal 2 cm Left main coronary and circumflex branch normal Moderate atheroma of right coronary <i>Infarct</i> Recent infarction of anterior wall of left ventricle and of ventricular septum
30	0 12	Right	Anterior	<i>Infarct</i> Recent extensive infarction of anterior wall of left ventricle and of ventricular septum Old fibrosed infarction of posterior wall of left ventricle
49	0 16	Right	Anterior and Posterior	<i>Infarct</i> Recent infarction of apex and anterior and posterior walls of left ventricle and of ventricular septum
75	0 12	Left	—	<i>Arteries</i> Marked atheroma of entire coronary tree Thrombosis of circumflex branch of left coronary <i>Infarct</i> Large area of posterior wall of left ventricle recently infarcted
76	0 12	Right	—	<i>Infarct</i> Thinning and fibrosis of old infarction involving posterior wall of left ventricle

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AORTIC SINUS ANEURYSMS

BY

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The three slight dilatations of the aorta immediately above the corresponding valve cusps, known as the aortic sinuses of Valsalva, are almost entirely intracardiac and lie near important parts of the heart (Fig. 1). Aneurysms arising from these sinuses may extend into the cardiac chambers and encroach upon the pulmonary valve, the atrio-ventricular valves, the conducting bundle, or the pulmonary or coronary arteries, or may lead to aortic regurgitation by deforming the aortic ring. They may rupture into one of the cardiac chambers, the pulmonary artery, or the pericardium, and sometimes communicate from birth with a cardiac chamber or the pulmonary artery. To these various complications such aneurysms owe much of their interest.

Aneurysms confined to the aortic sinuses are uncommon, Smith (1914) noted that in 8138 necropsies only 7 were found and, in all, only 20 cases were confirmed at necropsy prior to 1914. These aneurysms may be due to any of the usual causes, but those of congenital origin are of particular interest. The first recorded case of this type appears to be that of Thurnam (1840) and when Abbott (1936) collected her 1000 cases of congenital heart disease she was able to find only 12 congenital aortic sinus aneurysms recorded (Bauer & Astbury, 1944).

Our objects in this paper are to describe four new cases, which present certain features of interest, and to review the available clinical and pathological material particularly so far as it illustrates the pathological differences between the acquired and congenital types of aneurysm or aids the clinical diagnosis of congenital aneurysms. Some preliminary discussion of the nomenclature of the aortic sinuses and of the topography of the aortic root is desirable to clarify the anatomical features of the cases to be described.

NOMENCLATURE OF THE AORTIC SINUSES

The many ways of naming the aortic cusps and their sinuses are so confusing that it is often difficult to identify the sinus described. In Table I we have enumerated five methods of nomenclature and in Fig. 2 have indicated the sinus to which each name refers. The standard nomenclatures [Old Terminology, Basle Anatomical Nomenclature 1895 (BNA), Birmingham Revision, 1933 (BR)] have assumed that one aortic sinus lies anterior and two posterior and always placed in an anterior position the sinus from which the right coronary artery arises, but Walmsley (1929) has pointed out that sometimes two aortic sinuses lie anterior, and one posterior (Fig. 2), he suggested that sinuses related to the coronary arteries should be named right and left coronary sinuses, the third sinus being called the non-coronary sinus. This nomenclature is easy to understand and allows the sinuses to be named when the heart has been removed from the body and the sinuses exposed by opening the aorta, we have therefore adopted it in this paper.

TOPOGRAPHY OF THE AORTIC ROOT

The structures adjacent to the aortic sinuses are of considerable importance in discussing the clinical and pathological features of sinus aneurysms, these structures are illustrated in Fig. 1 and described in the caption.

The annulus fibrosus. Between the aorta proper and the main body of the left ventricle there is a tubular zone of fibrous tissue, the annulus fibrosus, which forms an important part of the wall of the aortic sinuses and extends downward to become incorporated in the aortic vestibule of the left ventricle. It is believed that congenital sinus aneurysms arise from defective development of the bulbar septum which divides the primitive exit

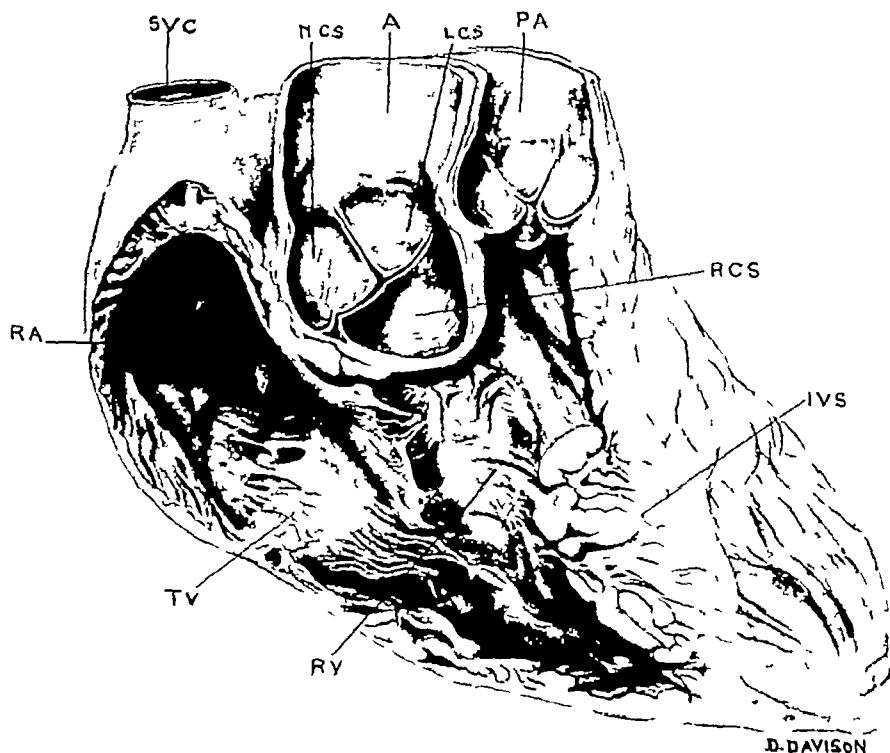


FIG 1—*Position of the aortic sinuses* From a normal heart, fixed unopened, with vessels and chambers distended. The anterior and part of the right walls of the right ventricle and right auricle have been removed and the aorta opened. The anterior part of the ventricular septum (IVS) has been sectioned. The right coronary sinus (RCS) projects into the conus of the right ventricle (RV). The non-coronary sinus (NCS) projects into the right auricle (RA) and the tricuspid valve lies below adjacent sectors of the non-coronary and right coronary sinuses. The left coronary sinus (LCS) with its coronary artery can be seen postero-laterally. It is related behind to the mitral valve and the left auricle. SVC—Superior vena cava A—Aorta PA—Pulmonary artery

tube of the heart, the bulbus cordis, into right and left halves. Since the annulus fibrosus arises from the bulbus cordis and forms part of the wall of the aortic sinuses, it is a particularly important structure to study when a sinus aneurysm is present.

CASE REPORTS

Case 1 A congenital aneurysm of the right coronary sinus associated with a bulbar ventricular septal defect, clinically simulating patency of the ductus arteriosus and complicated by subacute bacterial endocarditis.

In April, 1939, a schoolboy age 12, was referred to Dr. Crichton Bramwell on account of a heart murmur first discovered during a respiratory infection in infancy. Apart from tonsillitis when 5, he

had enjoyed good health. At school he led a normal life and played games, including football, without cyanosis or unusual dyspnoea. At 10 years of age tonsillectomy was advised, but not performed owing to the cardiac murmur. He suffered from epistaxis on several occasions and in August and December, 1938, severe attacks occurred.

On examination his general development was normal, height 60 inches, weight 80 lb. His exercise tolerance was good and there was no cyanosis or finger clubbing. The pulse was regular, rate 80, the blood pressure 125/40. To the left of the sternum, at the base, systolic and diastolic murmurs were heard. Cardioscopy showed considerable enlargement of both ventricles, but a cardiogram was normal apart from R waves of

TABLE I
NOMENCLATURE OF THE AORTIC SINUSES

	Walmsley (1929)	Common position		Less common position	
	(a)	(b) B R 1933	(c) B N A 1895	(d)	(e)
1	Right coronary	Anterior	Anterior	Right	Right anterior
2	Non-coronary	Right	Right posterior	Posterior	Posterior
3	Left coronary	Left	Left posterior	Left	Left anterior

exceptionally high voltage in the standard limb leads. The condition was diagnosed as patency of the ductus arteriosus.

In January, 1942, subacute bacterial endocarditis was suspected and he was admitted to hospital. Seven weeks prior to admission he had a pyrexial illness lasting a few days accompanied by vomiting and shivering. Subsequently his appetite failed to return and he complained of transient pains in the limbs, felt continually tired, lost weight, and was troubled by nocturnal sweating. For a week before admission he suffered from substernal pain which frequently awakened him at night.

On examination he weighed only 84 lb and was pale. His temperature was 100.2° F. Striking arterial pulsation was visible in the neck, the pulse was regular, rate 120, the blood pressure 120/30. A systolic thrill was palpable in the second and third left interspaces near the sternum accompanied by a harsh systolic murmur and a softer diastolic murmur, both maximal in the same position, but audible over the whole præcordium. A teloradiogram showed considerable cardiac enlargement (cardiothoracic

ratio 0.66) involving both ventricles. The cardiogram was similar to the previous record. The liver was palpable two inches below the costal margin, there was no œdema but a few moist sounds were heard at the lung bases. The spleen was palpable and there were scattered petechiæ on the abdomen, chest, neck, and arms. An Osler's node was found on the tip of the right little finger. Blood culture yielded a growth of *Streptococcus viridans*. His condition steadily deteriorated and three weeks after admission he collapsed suddenly and died the following day.

At necropsy a few petechiæ were found on the arms, there was subcutaneous œdema of the trunk and effusions were present in the pericardial, pleural, and abdominal cavities. There was generalized passive congestion and infarcts were present in the spleen and right lung, these appearances were confirmed histologically.

The heart was globular in shape and weighed 600 g. The right atrium was slightly hypertrophied but the left was normal. The right ventricle was slightly, and the left ventricle considerably hyper-

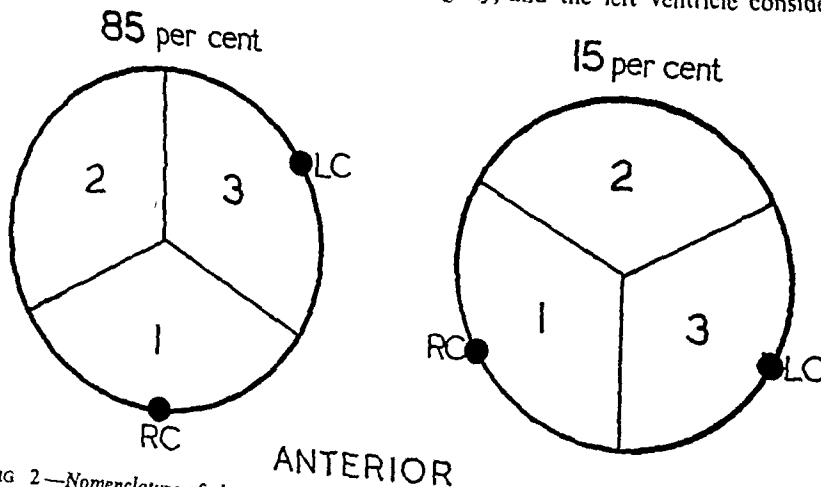


FIG. 2.—Nomenclature of the aortic sinuses. (1), (2), and (3) are the sinuses named in Table I. R C—right coronary artery. L C—left coronary artery. The percentages refer to Walmsley's (1929) estimate of the relative frequency of the two arrangements.

trophied The foramen ovale and the ductus arteriosus were closed In the anterior part of the ventricular septum, immediately below the right coronary cusp, there was a triangular opening, base 1.3 cm, height 0.8 cm, communicating between the conus of the right ventricle and the aortic vestibule of the left ventricle (Fig. 3) This opening lay anterior to the membranous septum and above the septal and parietal muscle bundles, it was therefore a defect of the true bulbar septum Vegetations characteristic of subacute bacterial endocarditis were present around the margins of the septal defect

The right coronary sinus was enlarged to form an

aneurysm with a mouth 2 by 2 cm and a depth of 2.5 cm From the upper limit of the mouth the wall of the aneurysm extended horizontally for a distance of 0.6 cm, and then curved downwards obliquely for 0.5 cm to a well defined transverse ridge Below this the outer wall of the aneurysm was related to the muscle of the right ventricle and then joined the right coronary cusp The size of the right coronary cusp was about normal but owing to the aneurysm, the intercommissural distance was small consequently the cusp sagged downwards through the septal defect (Fig. 3A), its lower part forming the upper margin of the communication between the ventricles This sagging

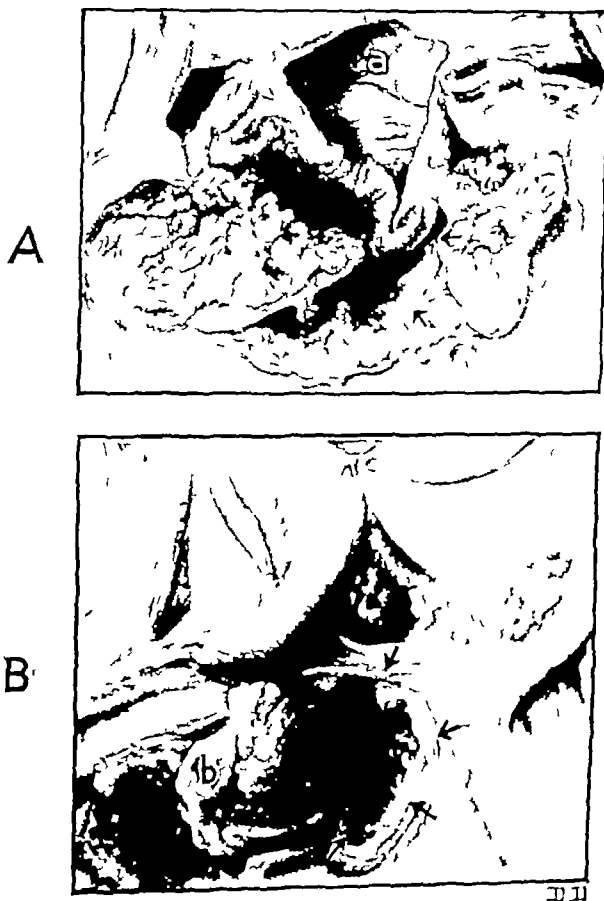


FIG. 3—Case 1 From a drawing of the aneurysm (A) Aortic and left ventricular aspect (a)—The aneurysm The sagging of the right coronary cusp can be seen The arrows indicate the margins of the ventricular septal defect, which is surrounded by the vegetations of bacterial endocarditis (B) Pulmonary and right ventricular aspect (b) The apex of the aneurysm projecting into the right ventricle through the septal defect The margins of the septal defect are indicated by arrows

had made apposition of the aortic cusps impossible so that the valve was incompetent

The non-coronary aortic cusp was enlarged, measuring 3 cm between the commissures and the corresponding sinus was deeper than usual (1.9 cm). The left coronary cusp measured 1.5 cm between the commissures. The right coronary artery was much smaller than the left, its orifice lying in the part of the aneurysm adjacent to the non-coronary sinus. The left coronary orifice was puckered and lay near the commissure between its sinus and the non-coronary sinus.

On *histological examination* the aorta and aortic valve cusps were normal apart from the vegetations and the inflammatory changes of bacterial endocarditis. From the annulus fibrosus a tongue of fibrous tissue ran upwards to the transverse ridge on the aneurysm wall, lying between the muscle of the right ventricle and the endothelial lining of the aneurysm. The aortic media terminated at the transverse ridge.

In addition to the aneurysm, several congenital anomalies were present, a bulbar septal defect, an abnormal tongue of fibrous tissue arising from the annulus, and grossly unequal aortic cusps. The aortic wall was free from disease other than bacterial endocarditis, which might have arisen upon the developmental defects. In view of these findings, it seems justifiable to attribute the aneurysm to a developmental anomaly.

The presence of aortic incompetence accounted for the collapsing pulse, the large pulse pressure and the diastolic component of the murmur. The systolic component and the thrill were explicable by the presence of the ventricular septal defect.

Case 2. A congenital aneurysm of the right coronary sinus, which ruptured into the conus of the right ventricle and led to progressive heart failure.

In January, 1944, a man of 41, a chauffeur, was admitted to hospital, complaining of breathlessness and swelling of the legs and abdomen. Heart disease was first found at the age of 24 when he had a severe attack of breathlessness and precordial pain. From that time he suffered from dyspnoea on exertion and precordial pain. Some weeks before admission he noticed swelling of the legs and abdomen and his dyspnoea became more severe. He had never had rheumatic fever nor chorea and cyanosis had not occurred in childhood.

On *examination* he was cyanosed, dyspnoeic at rest and the neck veins were engorged. The pulse was regular, rate 104 a minute, systolic blood pressure 140 mm, diastolic end point uncertain, the sounds being audible to complete decompression. The heart was enlarged, and a coarse systolic thrill

was palpable over the whole precordium, most intense in the third left interspace near the sternum. Very loud, coarse, systolic and diastolic murmurs of machinery type were audible over the whole precordium, but best heard in the third left interspace near the sternum. The liver was enlarged and tender and free fluid was present in the abdomen. There was considerable oedema of the legs and sacral area.

A cardiogram showed left axis deviation with depression of the RS-T segments in leads I and II; these appearances were attributed to left ventricular enlargement. A telerradiogram revealed considerable cardiac enlargement (cardiothoracic ratio 0.63) involving both ventricles but principally the left. The pulmonary artery and the pulmonary vascular markings were prominent.

With treatment by rest, mercurial diuretics and digitalis he gradually improved but his oedema did not entirely disappear. During his fourth week in hospital his condition began to deteriorate; his oedema increased, he became very breathless and was soon jaundiced and pyrexial. He died after four weeks in hospital.

Necropsy was performed by Dr G. Stewart Smith. The skin and mucous membranes were jaundiced and there was some oedema of the legs. The whole upper lobe of the right lung was consolidated and typical of the stage of grey hepatization of lobar pneumonia. Both lungs were congested and oedematous. There was generalized chronic venous congestion.

The *heart*, which we examined, weighed 640 g. In the left half of the right coronary sinus there was a round opening 0.7 cm in diameter with rounded slightly irregular margins (Fig. 4B). This led to a globular thin-walled cavity (Fig. 4A), 2 cm in diameter, which projected into the conus of the right ventricle between the septal (posterior) and right anterior cusps of the pulmonary valve (Fig. 4A). On the upper surface of the aneurysmal sac was an aperture approximately rectangular in shape, 0.8 cm by 0.6 cm, with smooth, rounded and thickened edges. The irregular shape of this opening suggested that it was due to rupture of the aneurysm and, since the edges were smooth and rounded, healing had occurred. The aneurysm thus formed a communication between the aorta and the right ventricle. The right coronary artery arose near the commissure between its sinus and the non-coronary sinus (Fig. 4B).

In the outflow tract of the left ventricle, 0.5 cm below the aortic valve, was a fibrous band, lying on the interventricular septum, and extending from the right upper margin to the left upper margin of the anterior curtain of the mitral valve (Fig. 4B).



FIG. 4—Case 2. From a drawing of the heart. (A) Pulmonary and right ventricular aspect. The perforated globular aneurysm lies in the conus of the right ventricle just below the septal (posterior) and right anterior cusps of the pulmonary valve. (B) Aortic and left ventricular aspect. (a) The opening of the aneurysm in the right coronary sinus. The right coronary artery arises near the commissure between its sinus and the non-coronary sinus.

This abnormality occurred at about the level at which sub-aortic stenosis develops. The wall of the left ventricle was slightly thickened (1.5 cm) and its cavity was dilated, this had led to the displacement of the ventricular septum towards the right ventricle. The wall of the right ventricle was about twice the normal thickness (0.9 cm) and the columnar carinae and chordae tendinae were hypertrophied. The conus of the right ventricle was considerably dilated but its body appeared only slightly dilated, though this was difficult to estimate owing to the displacement of the ventricular septum. The circumference of the pulmonary valve measured 8 cm, the septal cusp was fenestrated. The circumference of the aortic valve was 6.8 cm, and the left coronary cusp was slightly fenestrated. The mitral valve measured 7.5 cm in circumference and the tricuspid valve 13 cm, both valves appeared normal.

The absence of acquired heart disease and the presence of a congenital sub-aortic band of fibrous tissue make it reasonable to suppose that this aortic sinus aneurysm was of congenital origin. While unruptured it is unlikely to have given rise to symptoms, and it seems probable that the onset of symptoms 17 years before death coincided with rupture into the right ventricle, the healing of the margins of the rupture is consistent with this opinion.

Case 3 A dissecting aneurysm of the right coronary sinus communicating with the right and left ventricles and leading to an intracardiac haematoma around the right coronary artery

In March, 1941, a married woman of 54 was admitted to hospital, complaining of vomiting and palpitation. Her previous health had been good except for an attack of rheumatic fever at age 27, when she was confined to bed for a year, she was subsequently told that she had a "weak heart". At 50, she noticed breathlessness on exertion and began to suffer from attacks of palpitation of sudden onset and offset, lasting 20 to 30 minutes. In June, 1940, she noticed increasing thirst, polyuria, and progressive weakness, a diagnosis of diabetes mellitus was made. She remained fairly well until two weeks before admission when she lost her appetite and became easily tired, for 48 hours before admission she vomited repeatedly and became drowsy. On the evening before admission she had an attack of palpitation which lasted several hours, during the night she awoke owing to a recurrence of the palpitation which continued until admission.

On examination it was found that the heart was completely irregular at a rate of 172 a minute. Blood pressure 120/85. The cervical veins were

engorged and moist sounds were present at both lung bases. The temperature was 100° F and the urine contained a considerable quantity of sugar and acetone, blood sugar 355 mg per 100 ml. The condition was diagnosed as diabetes mellitus with hyperglycaemic pre-coma, and uncontrolled auricular fibrillation.

She was treated with insulin, glucose, and intravenous digoxin followed by digitalis by mouth. Her heart rate fell to 94 in 24 hours, when an apical diastolic murmur, typical of mitral stenosis, became audible. A cardiogram confirmed the presence of auricular fibrillation. A telerradiogram of the chest showed slight cardiac enlargement. The diabetic ketosis was rapidly controlled, but her temperature remained raised owing to a *B. coli* pyelitis which was treated by sulphapyridine. After three weeks she was allowed up for a short time, a week later she had an attack of paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnoea. She was confined to bed and the attacks ceased after four nights. Four days later she suddenly collapsed, complaining of tightness across the chest, she became cyanosed and died within a few minutes.

At necropsy effusions were present in both pleural cavities and there was generalized chronic venous congestion. The heart weighed 480 g, the left ventricle was hypertrophied but the right appeared normal except where the aneurysm projected into it. Both atria appeared normal. The mitral valve was moderately stenosed, the aortic cusps were thickened but the pulmonary and tricuspid valves appeared healthy. There was slight atheroma of the coronary arteries, especially near the orifice of the right coronary.

The lower part of the right coronary sinus formed an aneurysm about 3 cm deep extending towards, and projecting into, the conus of the right ventricle (Fig. 5). The upper part of the inner (aortic) wall of the aneurysm was formed by the right coronary cusp, the middle part of the wall was disorganized and interrupted by a perforation communicating with the left ventricle, the lowest part of the inner wall was formed by the upper part of the ventricular septum. The apex of the aneurysm projected into the right ventricle. The outer wall was formed by a large, grey, necrotic mass, 6 by 4 cm, which enclosed the first part of the right coronary artery. The upper part of this mass contained a recent haemorrhage. The greater part of the aneurysm was lined by loose blood clot, when this was removed a smooth lining of adherent thrombus was seen.

Histology Normally the annulus fibrosus is of triangular shape and covered by a thin layer of elastic tissue on its aortic and left ventricular surfaces (Fig. 6A), the aortic layer is continuous with



FIG 5—Case 3. From a drawing of the heart (a) Aorta (b) Aneurysm (c) Hæmatoma

the internal elastic tissue of the aorta and the ventricular layer joins the subendothelial elastic tissue on the left side of the ventricular septum and is continuous with the subendothelial elastic tissue of the right ventricle. In the specimen the annulus fibrosus had become separated from the aortic media. The left ventricular layer of elastic tissue of the annulus could be traced through to the elastic tissue on the left side of the membranous septum. At the apex of the aneurysm the distribution of elastic tissue strongly suggests that this was the reflected right side of the septum (Fig 6C).

These observations are explicable if the aneurysm had been formed as suggested in Fig 6. First, blood penetrated between the termination of the aortic media and the annulus fibrosus (Fig

6B) then it spread into the subpericardial fat to form the large hæmatoma. It next separated the muscle of the right ventricle from the annulus and then extended in three directions, (1) to rupture through the endothelium of the right ventricle (2) to split the membranous septum and reflect it with its elastic layer towards the right ventricle and (3) to sever the apex of the annulus from the septum and to rupture through the endothelium of the left ventricle (Fig 6C). Thus the dissection lay between the annulus and the muscle of the right ventricle and had communicated with both ventricles.

Although there is little doubt that this was a dissecting aneurysm arising in the right coronary sinus at the junction of the aortic media with the annulus fibrosus, it is more difficult to decide the nature of the lesion that led to the dissection. Examination of the aorta showed none of the degenerative changes such as cystic medial necrosis often found in dissecting aneurysms. There were however, inflammatory changes with a round cell reaction, fibroblasts, and new capillaries. These changes were sometimes perivascular but unlike the changes of syphilis, they were confined to the adventitia and did not invade the media. Although the inflammatory changes were most severe and acute at the point of rupture, they were also present in the whole of the intrapericardiac aorta. There were also striking histological changes in the aortic and mitral valve cusps, which were scarred and vascularized by thin walled blood vessels and in the myocardium small areas of perivascular fibrosis were found. In the pericardium there were recent inflammatory changes with some cellular foci which resembled Aschoff bodies though giant cells were not found. The association of these changes in the valves and myocardium with mitral stenosis confirms their rheumatic origin and suggests that the recent inflammatory changes in the pericardium and aorta were due to a recrudescence of cardiovascular rheumatism. The close resemblance of the aortic lesions to those described as rheumatic aortitis by Pappenheimer and von Glahn (1924) strengthens this hypothesis. It is therefore probable that the dissection arose owing to the development of active aortitis possibly rheumatic in origin.

Case 4. An aneurysm of the non coronary aortic sinus projecting into both atria probably due to bacterial endocarditis.

A married woman aged 52 was first seen in June 1942 on account of hæmatemesis due to a gastric ulcer. At this time a soft apical systolic murmur was noticed but no signs of organic heart disease. blood pressure 135/85. Hæmatemesis recurred in

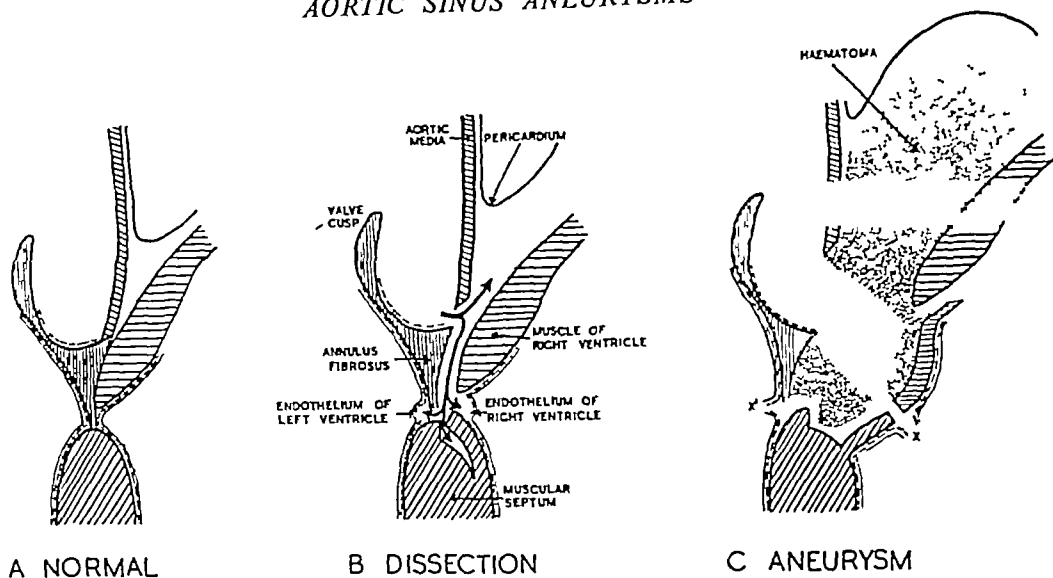


FIG 6—Case 3 The formation of the aneurysm (A) Normal structure of aortic root in section through right coronary sinus The distribution of elastic tissue is shown by interrupted lines The structures are named in (B) (B) Mode of dissection The annulus fibrosus has been separated from the termination of the aortic media, the subsequent directions of dissection are indicated by arrows (C) Aneurysm By comparison with (B) the way in which the aneurysm has formed can be seen

June, 1943, and again in September, 1945, when she was re admitted to hospital

Examination Blood pressure 140/90 mm Apical systolic murmur still present Hæmoglobin 74, falling to 64 per cent in a few days Radioscopy showed the heart at the upper normal limit of size Slight fever was present and persisted White cell count 5800–7200 per cmm Gallstones were demonstrated by cholecystogram Eleven septic teeth were extracted without any improvement in her condition On January 4, 1946, she had a sudden gripping mid-sternal pain lasting twelve hours and became breathless A systolic thrill and murmur then appeared in the 2nd left interspace near the sternum, and a high-pitched diastolic murmur along the left sternal border The pulse became collapsing, blood pressure 145/55 mm A diagnosis of ruptured aortic cusp due to infective endocarditis was made, and blood culture showed a non hæmolytic, penicillin-sensitive streptococcus In spite of apparent control of the infection with penicillin, she died from heart failure three weeks later

At necropsy bilateral pleural effusion, general passive congestion splenic and renal infarcts, and chronic gastritis were found The heart weighed 470 g From the non-coronary sinus an aneurysm, 2.5 cm in diameter, projected backwards into the atria (Fig 7 and 8) The interatrial septum ran across the aneurysm dividing it into two unequal parts, one third lying in the right atrium and two-

thirds in the left The non-coronary cusp was thickened and calcified and, in the portion lying above the mitral valve, there was a perforation 1.7 cm in diameter, surrounded by small crumbling vegetations The other two aortic cusps were thickened and the commissure between them was calcified Many small vegetations were present on the margins of all cusps No abnormality was found in any other valve The cavity of the left ventricle was moderately dilated and the ventricular wall slightly thickened The other chambers appeared normal Atheromatous changes were present in the coronary arteries but were not severe

Histology The wall of the aneurysm consisted of three layers, an outer layer of fibro-elastic tissue (the atrial endocardium), a middle layer of muscle, and a thick inner layer of fibrous tissue The inner and middle layers were separated by small islands of elastic tissue which could be traced from the wall of the aneurysm into the elastic layer of the aortic media Embedded in the inner layer were small areas of calcification The aneurysm was partly lined by organizing thrombus which was sometimes covered by a thin layer of fibrous tissue In the aortic adventitia adjacent to the aneurysm, there was a widespread, mainly polymorphonuclear, inflammatory reaction which had, at one point, spread into the aneurysm wall Newly formed fibrous tissue extended from this area to the inner wall of the aneurysm and into the vegetations on the

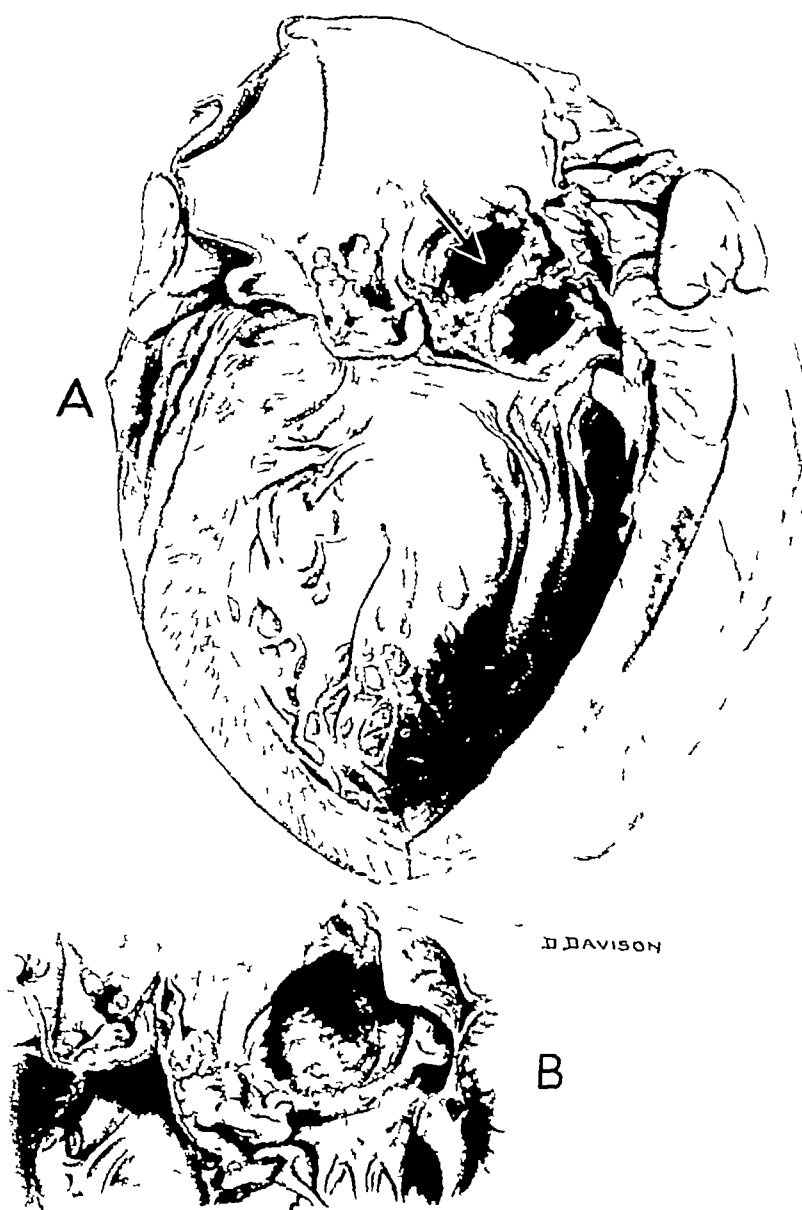


FIG 7—Case 4 From a drawing of the heart (A) Aortic and left ventricular aspect The arrow indicates the aneurysm across its mouth a strip of tissue represents the remains of the non-coronary aortic cusp below this lies the large perforation of the cusp (B) The remaining part of the anterior aortic cusp has been removed to reveal the extent of the aneurysm The vegetations of bacterial endocarditis are visible in (A) and (B)

AORTIC SINUS ANEURYSMS

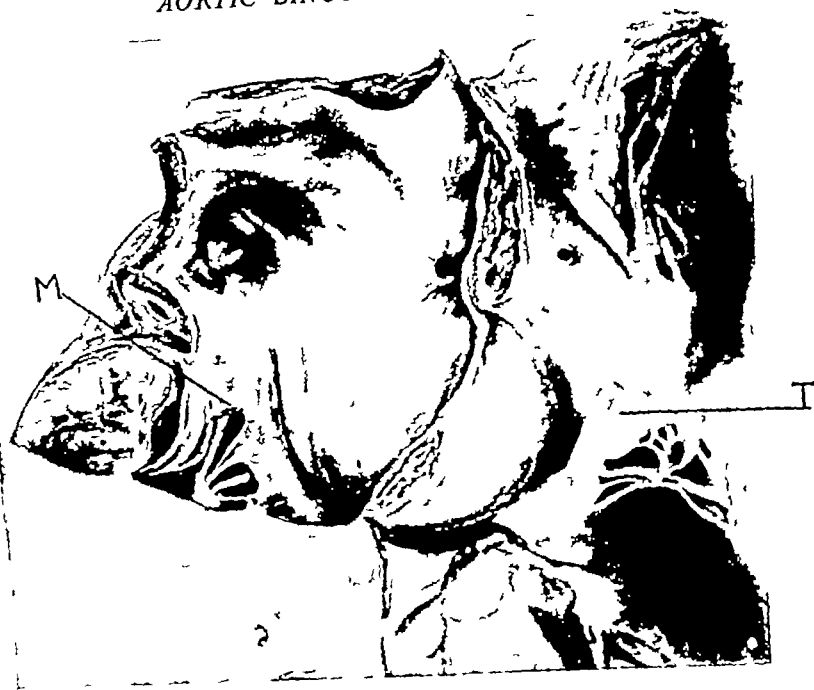


FIG 8—Case 4 From a drawing of the atrial aspect of the aneurysm The atrial septum, which crosses the aneurysm has been cut The left atrium and the mitral valve (M) lie to the left of the cut edge, the right atrium and the tricuspid valve (T) to the right

non-coronary cusp The aortic media was entirely free from inflammatory changes The normal architecture of the non-coronary cusp was greatly distorted and much calcification was present The histology of the mitral valve was normal Sections from the ventricular septum showed a diffuse, fairly acute, myocarditis

The aneurysm might have developed owing to the bacterial endocarditis, or it could have been of congenital origin and the focus for the bacterial endocarditis It is not difficult to understand how the bacterial endocarditis could have led to this aneurysm for the position of the inflammatory reaction in the aorta was such that it might have caused a separation of the annulus fibrosus from the aortic media, thus exposing the muscle of the atria, which would be stretched by the intra-aortic pressure to form the aneurysm In another case of subacute bacterial endocarditis we have seen the first stage of this process, for the annulus fibrosus of the non-coronary aortic cusp had been separated from the aortic media by a gap of 2 mm, through this gap blood had penetrated to form a hæmatoma between the annulus fibrosus and the atrial muscle If this had occurred in the present case and the separation had extended to expose the atrial muscle, thrombosis would have occurred on the exposed

muscle surface and subsequent organization could have given rise to the fibrous lining of the aneurysm The mode of formation thus resembles that in Case 3, but there the dissection started in the right coronary sinus and blood leaked into the loose subpericardiac tissues forming a hæmatoma In the present case the leakage was limited by the close relationship of the non-coronary sinus to the atrial muscle, so a large hæmatoma could not form We believe this to be the probable explanation of the histological structure of the aneurysm wall, so we do not suggest a congenital origin in this case The absence of other congenital anomalies, which nearly always accompany congenital sinus aneurysms, supports this conclusion There was no proof of an old lesion of the aortic valve upon which the bacterial endocarditis could have arisen, but the valve was so greatly deformed by the infection that old rheumatic disease cannot be excluded

Cases 3 and 4 illustrate the difficulty that may be encountered in deciding the ætiology of sinus aneurysms, and emphasize the importance of adequate histological examination in these cases

DISCUSSION

Aneurysms of the aortic sinuses may be divided into two groups, acquired (so-called "spontan-

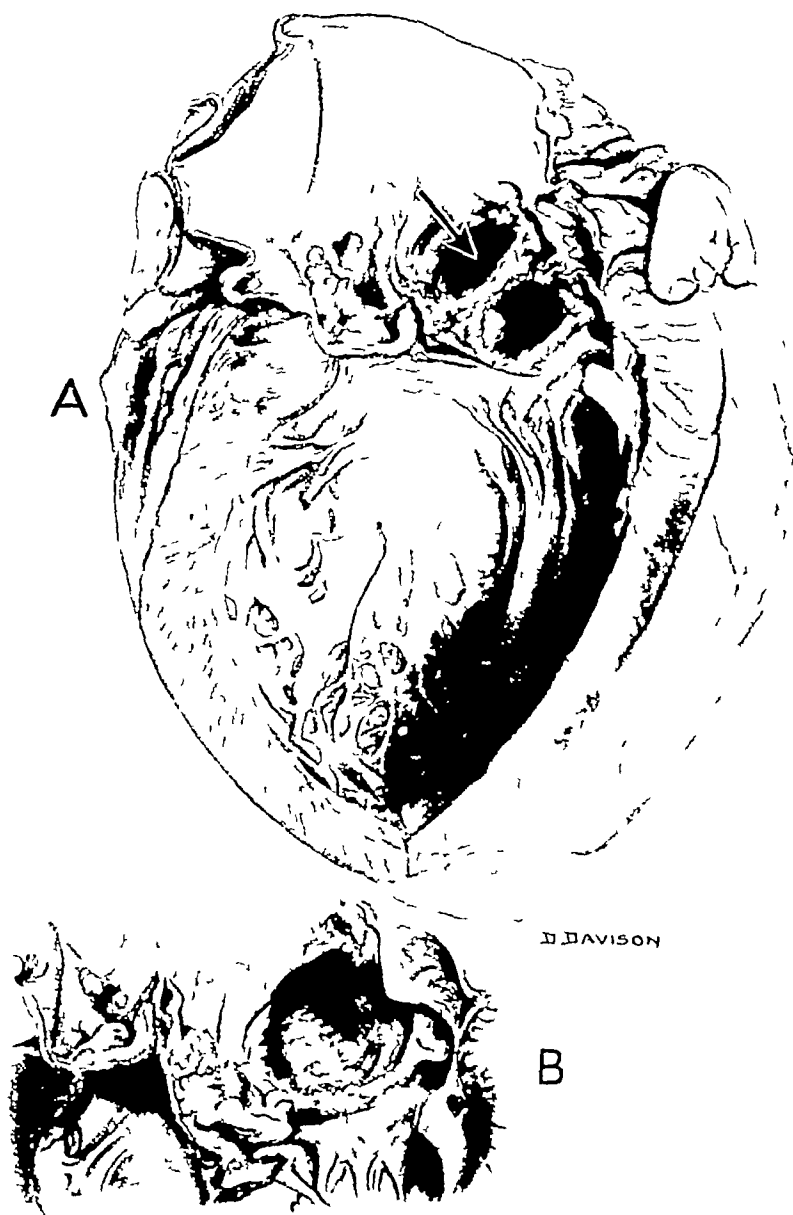


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non-coronary cusp The aortic media was entirely free from inflammatory changes. The normal architecture of the non-coronary cusp was greatly distorted and much calcification was present. The histology of the mitral valve was normal. Sections from the ventricular septum showed a diffuse, fairly acute, myocarditis.

The aneurysm might have developed owing to the bacterial endocarditis, or it could have been of congenital origin and the focus for the bacterial endocarditis. It is not difficult to understand how the bacterial endocarditis could have led to this aneurysm for the position of the inflammatory reaction in the aorta was such that it might have caused a separation of the annulus fibrosus from the aortic media, thus exposing the muscle of the atria, which would be stretched by the intra-aortic pressure to form the aneurysm. In another case of subacute bacterial endocarditis we have seen the first stage of this process, for the annulus fibrosus of the non-coronary aortic cusp had been separated from the aortic media by a gap of 2 mm, through this gap blood had penetrated to form a hæmatoma between the annulus fibrosus and the atrial muscle. If this had occurred in the present case and the separation had extended to expose the atrial muscle, thrombosis would have occurred on the exposed

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Cases 3 and 4 illustrate the difficulty that may be encountered in deciding the ætiology of sinus aneurysms, and emphasize the importance of adequate histological examination in these cases.

DISCUSSION

Aneurysms of the aortic sinuses may be divided into two groups, acquired (so-called "spontan-

eous") aneurysms, which arise in a diseased aorta, and aneurysms due to developmental defects. Since there appear to be important pathological, radiological, and clinical differences between the two types, which have not usually been described separately, we have considered it worthwhile to compare verified cases from both groups including our own cases and have collected 25 reported cases of congenital sinus aneurysms proved at necropsy, together with 22 acquired aneurysms confined to the aortic sinuses and confirmed pathologically. We have not included acquired aneurysms reported prior to 1914 since these were often inadequately described and the ætiological importance of syphilis was not appreciated. The sources of these cases are given below.

Congenital Aneurysms

*RCS** Thurnam (1840), Beck (1842), Rickards (1881), Charteris (1883), Livingston (1883), Cayla (1885), Kryzwicki (1889), White (1892), Kraus (1902), Hart (1905) 3 cases, Eppinger (1916), Abbott (1919), Jacobi and Heinrich (1933), Hirschboeck (1942), King (1942), Macleod (1944), Our cases 1 and 2.
*NCS** Goehring (1920), Laederich and Pomeau-Delville (1928), Duras (1944), Kawasaki and Benenson (1946), Herson and Symons (1946).

Acquired Aneurysms

*RCS** Smith (1914) Cases 1 and 2, Noack (1919), Scott (1924) Case 1, Sheldon (1926), Abbott (1932), Benson, Hunter, and Manlove (1933) Case 1, Snyder and Hunter (1934) Case 2, Schuster (1937), Hamilton-Paterson and Castleden (1942) Case 3, Our case 3.

*NCS** Marty and Froncin (1924), Norris (1932), Higgins (1934), Wright (1937), Our case 4.

*LCS** Scott (1924) Case 2, Abbott (1932), Benson, Hunter, and Manlove (1933) Case 2, Snyder and Hunter (1934) Case 1, Ostrum, Robinson, Nichols, and Widman (1938) Case 5, Chipps (1941).

MORBID ANATOMY

The figures below refer to the number of cases in which the feature mentioned has been recorded, since the descriptions are often insufficient, the figures are necessarily incomplete.

Congenital Aneurysms (25)

Sinus involved *RCS* 20, *NCS* 5, *LCS* 0
Origin from sinus Sac with round or oval opening 0.5 to 1.5 cm sinus not dilated, 12 Whole

sinus dilated, no separate aneurysmal sac, 2
 Both dilated sinus and aneurysmal sac 2

Position of opening in sinus *RCS* right half, 3 central, 2, left half, 4 *NCS* Adjacent to *RCS*, 3, central, 2

Size None larger than 4 cm diameter

Shape Globular, unless ruptured, then collapse, unless thickened, to form fistulous channel 1.5 to 2.5 cm long

Walls Thin, often transparent, but occasionally thickened

Cardio-aortic fistula *RCS* 17 led to fistula, 13 to conus of right ventricle, 2 to right atrium, 1 to left ventricle, 1 to pulmonary artery. *Fistulae* due to rupture of aneurysm, 12 probably present from birth, 5 *NCS* 4 ruptured into right atrium. No congenital aneurysm ruptured outside heart.

Encroachment on intracardiac structures *RCS* Pulmonary valve, 6, tricuspid valve, 5 ventricular septum, 2, right ventricle, 1, both ventricles, 1 *NCS* Right atrium 5, tricuspid valve, 3, conducting bundle, 1

Aortic incompetence *RCS* 4

Associated lesions *Congenital* 23 Anomalies of aortic cusps, 15 (bicuspid, 6, much enlarged cusp, 4, rudimentary cusp, 1, thickened cusp, 4, calcified cusp, 2, fenestrated cusp, 2) Subaortic stenosis, 2 Abnormal extension of annulus fibrosus, 2 Ventricular septal defects, 10 (bulbar, 3, probably bulbar, 6, ruptured ventricular septal aneurysm, 1) Coarctation of the aorta, 2 Pulmonary conus stenosis 1 Single coronary artery, 1 Patent foramen ovale, 1

Acquired Subacute bacterial endocarditis, 6 Rheumatic heart disease, 1

Cardiac enlargement Myocardial hypertrophy, 20, enlargement both ventricles, 14, mainly left ventricle, 4, mainly right ventricle, 4

Heart weight Less than 300 g, 3 350 to 450 g, 2, 500 to 650 g, 5

Summary Congenital sinus aneurysms have been confined to the right coronary sinus and the adjacent two-thirds of the non-coronary sinus. They are always small but owing to their thin walls, commonly rupture to form cardio-aortic fistulae (21 of 25) usually communicating between the right coronary sinus and the right ventricle, or between the non-coronary sinus and the right atrium. They remain entirely intracardiac and do not affect extracardiac structures nor rupture outside the heart, but frequently cause disturbance of intracardiac structures, especially the pulmonary

* *RCS* Right coronary sinus *NCS* Non-coronary sinus *LCS* Left coronary sinus

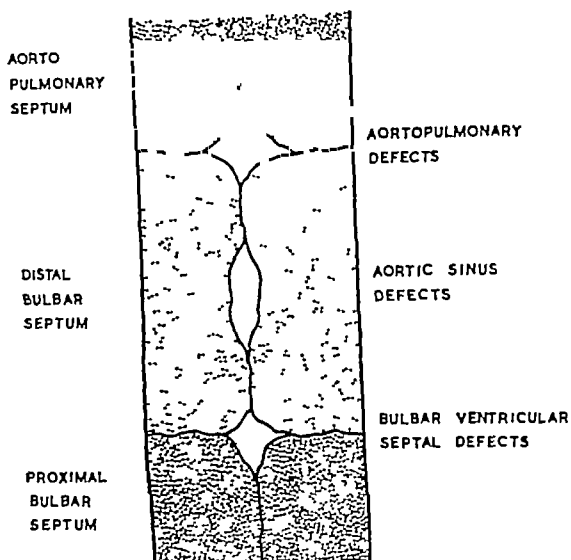


FIG 9—Formation of the bulbar septum. Fusion of the aorto-pulmonary and the proximal and distal bulbar septa occurs last at the areas represented as gaps. The suggested defects which may arise at these sites are indicated on the right.

valve, which is often interfered with by right coronary sinus aneurysms, and the tricuspid valve which may be encroached upon by aneurysms arising in either sinus. Congenital sinus aneurysms are nearly always associated with other developmental faults, usually anomalies of the aortic cusps or bulbar ventricular septal defects. Apart from bacterial endocarditis, acquired heart disease has occurred in only one case.

Acquired Aneurysms (22)

Ætiology Associated with syphilis, 17, with bacterial endocarditis, 4, dissecting, 1, atheromatous, 1.

Sinus involved RCS 11 NCS 5 LCS 7

Size Often very large, e.g. admitting two fists.

Rupture RCS 7 (right ventricle, 1, pulmonary artery, 2, pericardium, 1, left pleural cavity, 1, externally, 2) NCS 3 (right atrium, 2, pericardium, 1) LCS 1 (pulmonary artery).

Encroachment of intracardiac structures RCS Pulmonary artery, 1, right coronary artery, 4, tricuspid valve, 1, septum and conducting bundle, 1 NCS 0 LCS Pulmonary artery, 2, left atrium, 3, left coronary artery, 2, left ventricle, 1, mitral valve, 2.

Associated lesions Aortic incompetence, 8 (syphilitic, 6, bacterial endocarditis, 2) Bicuspid aortic valve, 2.

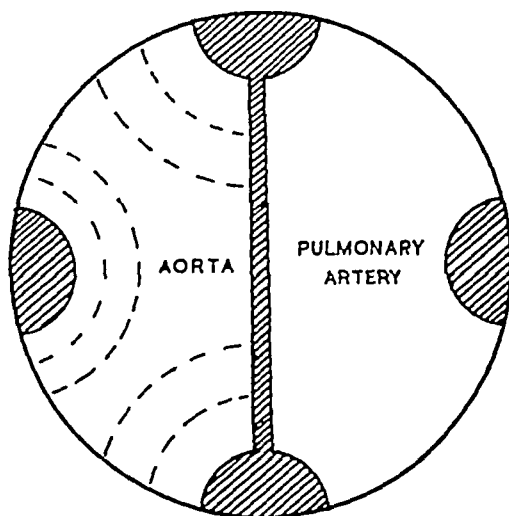


FIG 10—Formation of the aortic cusps. Growth of the cusps indicated by interrupted lines. Only two cusps can be related to the bulbar septum.

Summary Acquired sinus aneurysms may arise from any of the aortic sinuses. Owing to their large size they tend to extend upwards, often becoming extracardiac and rupturing outside the heart. Cardio-aortic fistulae were present in only 6 cases. They encroach upon intracardiac structures less often than congenital aneurysms. Congenital cardiac defects were present in only two cases, but acquired heart disease was invariably present, usually syphilis or bacterial endocarditis.

EMBRYOLOGY

Congenital sinus aneurysms are believed to arise from defective development of the distal bulbar septum. This structure separates the systemic and pulmonary halves of the bulbus cordis, the primitive exit tube of the heart. It arises by endothelial outgrowths from each side of the bulbus cordis, and is completed by fusion distally with the aorto-pulmonary septum and proximally with the proximal bulbar septum, which represents the bulbar part of the ventricular septum (Fig 9).

Congenital weaknesses are likely to develop at points of fusion, that is, distally, where the distal bulbar septum fuses with the aorto-pulmonary septum, between the two halves of the distal bulbar septum, and proximally where the distal meets the proximal bulbar septum (Fig 10). It is reasonable to suppose that congenital aorto-pulmonary fistulae

develop at the distal site, aortic sinus aneurysms and cardio-aortic fistulae at the intermediate site, and bulbar septal defects at the proximal site of fusion

Although all the aortic sinus aneurysms collected by Abbott (1919) arose from the right coronary sinus, aneurysms undoubtedly arising from the non-coronary sinus have been subsequently reported, but there is no reported instance of a congenital aneurysm arising from the left coronary sinus. From Fig 10 it is clear that only two sinuses can be related to the distal bulbar septum, so it is not surprising that these aneurysms are confined to the right coronary and non-coronary sinuses

Micks (1940) collected three cases of aneurysmal dilatation of all three aortic sinuses and added a new case. Brown (1939) also mentions a similar case. Micks tentatively suggested that such cases might be of developmental origin, but since neither syphilis nor cystic medical necrosis was excluded by adequate histological examination in any of these cases, we do not regard their developmental origin as proven

CLINICAL FEATURES OF CONGENITAL SINUS ANEURYSMS

Patients with congenital sinus aneurysms are usually male (19 of 24). Signs and symptoms might arise from (a) a cardio-aortic fistula, (b) interference with intracardiac structures, (c) other congenital defects, or (d) bacterial endocarditis

Cardio-aortic fistula A defect in the wall of an aortic sinus gives rise either to a congenital cardio-aortic fistula or to aneurysmal dilatation of the sinus that leads to a cardio aortic fistula by rupture later in life, signs and symptoms due to the fistula may therefore either be present from birth or appear suddenly in later life

Congenital cardio-aortic fistula Five of the twenty-one fistulae are believed to be congenital. In one case death occurred from pulmonary atelectasis ten days after birth and in another enterocolitis led to death at four months old, the aneurysms were incidental necropsy findings. In two other cases cardiac symptoms were minimal until two months and three years prior to death from heart failure at ages of 30 and 31, both patients had multiple congenital cardiac lesions including septal defects. The remaining patient never had cardiac symptoms, and death at age of 53 followed two weeks illness of unknown nature associated with severe vomiting and abdominal pain. Thus, death was due to intercurrent disease in three cases, and in the other two cases cardiac symptoms did not appear until the end of the third decade

Cardio-aortic fistula due to sinus aneurysm rupture Eppinger (1916) has described the event of rupture. A man of 43, previously fit and active, was climbing a mountain and bent down to lift a heavy stone, when about to cast this aside he was seized by a sudden pain in the chest and immediately noticed a "whirring" sensation in the mid-sternal area "like a half-filled bottle being shaken" in the chest. These sensations gradually diminished in severity and he was soon able to lead the way down the mountain. Eight days later he noticed difficulty in breathing and palpitation and soon became unable to walk more than a few steps, he was confined to bed and treated with digitalis without improvement, he developed oedema and died nine months later

Of 25 congenital aneurysms, 15 are believed to have ruptured during life, in 6 cases death followed within five weeks and 6 died between two and thirteen months. Of the remaining 3 cases, one died four years after rupture due to further tearing of the aneurysm, a second died nine years later from bacterial endocarditis, and the third (our Case 2) survived seventeen years with intermittent failure, eventually dying with lobar pneumonia

It therefore appears that the heart tolerates a congenital cardio-aortic fistula much better than its sudden development in later life, which usually leads to progressive heart failure, death occurring within a few weeks in over one-third of cases and within about a year in four-fifths of cases, in exceptional cases symptomatic recovery takes place, death being due to a second rupture or to intercurrent disease

The physical signs of a cardio-aortic fistula are an important feature of congenital sinus aneurysms for in only 4 of 25 cases was the aneurysm wall intact at death, in 13 cases the fistula led to the right ventricle, in 6 cases to the right atrium, in 1 case to the left ventricle, and there was an aorto pulmonary fistula in the remaining case

Both patency of the ductus arteriosus and aorto pulmonary communications (Shepherd, Park, and Kitchell, 1944) give rise to a systolic diastolic murmur at the base of the heart and a collapsing pulse. But a communication between the greater and lesser circulations lying below the valve cusps as in ventricular septal defect causes only a systolic murmur. In cardio-aortic fistulae one end of the fistula lies above the cusps, and one below, but there is no doubt that the associated murmur usually extends into diastole. This was so when there was no other congenital lesion (our Case 2) or only congenital lesions associated with systolic murmurs (10 cases). The character of this systolic diastolic murmur is striking for it is often described as superficial, simulating pericardial friction, and

nearly always coarse, harsh or rasping in character, accompanied by a thrill, usually systolic, but in Abbott's (1919) case there was a diastolic thrill so intense that it could be felt through the bedclothes. The systolic and diastolic components may merge into each other to form a continuous murmur so that the cardio-aortic fistula murmur is more likely to be confused with the murmurs of patency of the ductus or of a congenital aorto-pulmonary communication than with the to-and-fro murmurs of acquired aortic valve disease. The cardio-aortic fistula murmur tends to be lower in position than other continuous systolic-diastolic murmurs, and it was definitely louder in the third or fourth spaces than in either the second space in 6 of 9 cases in which this is recorded. The physical signs are essentially similar whether the fistula leads to the right ventricle or the right atrium. In the case reported by Herson and Symons (1946) the physical signs are of exceptional interest for, at the age of 12, before rupture, there was only a loud musical systolic murmur, maximal at the inner ends of the fourth and fifth interspaces, presumably due to the associated ventricular septal defect, whereas after rupture at the age of 31 the typical systolic-diastolic murmur became audible.

(b) *Interference with intracardiac structures* The aortic valve was often affected and was incompetent in 7 cases, probably due to distortion by the aneurysm in 4 cases. There do not appear to have been striking symptoms until the aneurysm ruptured or bacterial endocarditis developed. The tricuspid valve was involved in 8 cases. In only 2 was a clinical diagnosis of tricuspid disease made, in these cases a systolic murmur was heard at the lower end of the sternum and hepatic pulsation was present. In 2 others, the necropsy findings suggested significant interference with the tricuspid valve, but in all 4 the patients had apparently been well and active until their aneurysms ruptured thirteen months, one month, four and a half weeks, and ten days before death. The pulmonary valve cusps were pushed aside in 5 cases, in none of these was pulmonary valve disease suspected during life, although pulmonary incompetence was diagnosed in another case in which the valve was not affected.

Pressure on the conducting bundle was believed to have led to the complete heart block in one case and pressure on the A-V node was regarded as the cause of A-V nodal rhythm in the other case. Encroachment upon the cardiac chambers has often occurred, but there is no evidence that it has impaired cardiac efficiency.

(c) *Associated congenital cardiac defects* If a cardio-aortic fistula is present, its signs and symptoms overshadow those of other less striking con-

genital lesions, which can be studied only in cases with unruptured aneurysms and by reviewing the history prior to rupture in other cases. In two cases with unruptured aneurysms no clinical details are available, and in the other two there were no symptoms until bacterial endocarditis developed in the one case and Stokes-Adams attacks in the other. Of 15 patients whose aneurysms ruptured there were no cardiac symptoms prior to rupture in 14, and in the remaining one the incapacity was due to bacterial endocarditis. Ventricular septal defects were present in 6 cases, aortic incompetence in 3 cases, and slight coarctation of the aorta in 2 cases. The congenital defects associated with aortic sinus aneurysms appear to be of an almost asymptomatic type.

(d) *Subacute bacterial endocarditis* Of 6 unruptured aneurysms, 4 became infected, 2 of these subsequently ruptured. Of 13 aneurysms that ruptured during life only one subsequently became infected, and that nine years later. The short duration of life after rupture may account for the rarity of subsequent infection. None of the five congenital communications became infected. Age does not appear to be a factor in determining the preponderance of infection in unruptured aneurysms, for the average age at death was similar in all groups and bacterial endocarditis developed at ages from one and a half to 56 years.

CAUSES OF DEATH

Heart failure was the cause of death in 15 of 25 cases, and in 12 could be attributed to rupture, in 2 to congenital cardio-aortic fistulae, and in 1 to rheumatic heart disease associated with an unruptured aneurysm. *Bacterial endocarditis* led to death in 6 cases, and *intercurrent disease* was the immediate cause of death in 4 cases. Thus, nearly two-thirds of these patients died from heart failure, usually due to the cardio-aortic fistula, and one quarter from subacute bacterial endocarditis.

In this summary of the clinical features of congenital sinus aneurysms the signs and symptoms associated with a cardio-aortic fistula have been emphasized, for this complication is present in the majority of cases, dominates the clinical picture by its often dramatic onset and striking physical signs, and usually leads to heart failure which is the commonest cause of death. By comparison, the effects of local extension of the aneurysm and the signs of other congenital defects are unimportant.

RADIOGRAPHY

Congenital sinus aneurysms are usually small and almost always project into a cardiac cavity rather than externally. It is therefore not surprising

to find that, in six published cases in which radiological findings are given, and in our two cases, no evidence of localized 'aneurysmal swelling' was observed. Roesler (1943) and Ostrum *et al* (1938) have described small projections from the vascular pedicle, often evident only in the oblique views, in cases of sinus aneurysm, but we conclude that these observations relate to the acquired variety. In eight cases with radiological findings, the heart was enlarged in all. In seven of them a cardio-aortic fistula was present and probably responsible for the enlargement, in the remaining case a ventricular septal defect and aortic incompetence were present. The available evidence indicates that the enlargement involves both ventricles. The aortic shadow was not abnormal in four cases where this point is recorded.

ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHY

Only two electrocardiograms have been published, and the findings are described in three other cases. Including our two cases, we have information about the standard limb leads in only seven cases. In two cases right axis deviation was associated with signs suggestive of aortic incompetence, though actually due to the cardio-aortic fistula, some diagnostic significance was assigned to this association by Hirschboeck (1942) and Herson and Symons (1946) but it has not occurred in the other cases, left axis deviation being present in three cases. Complete heart block and auricular fibrillation have each occurred in one case. The electrocardiographic findings are so inconstant that they give little assistance in diagnosis.

DIAGNOSIS OF CONGENITAL SINUS ANEURYSMS

An unruptured congenital aortic sinus aneurysm is almost asymptomatic and without physical or radiographic signs, though the presence of congenital heart disease may be recognized by the signs of an associated lesion such as a bulbar septal defect. Unruptured sinus aneurysms are, however, very prone to become infected, as we have shown, and when bacterial endocarditis develops in a heart apparently previously healthy, this is one of the silent underlying lesions that may be suspected.

The situation is quite different when a cardio-aortic fistula is present, either congenital or due to the rupture of a sinus aneurysm, for this is associated with striking physical signs and, if due to rupture in later life, with a dramatic clinical history. Eppinger (1916) was able to make a correct clinical diagnosis in his case by comparing the event of rupture during effort and the physical signs that followed with the similar case described by Kraus (1902). Rupture of

a congenital sinus aneurysm is perhaps most likely to be confused with rupture of an aortic cusp though this is usually associated with either syphilis or bacterial endocarditis. If these two diseases can be excluded rupture of a sinus aneurysm may justifiably be suspected, unless it is to be admitted that a healthy aortic cusp can rupture owing to exceptional trauma. In this differential diagnosis the physical signs will be helpful for the characteristic harsh, superficial, systolic-diastolic murmur often accompanied by a thrill, maximal in the third left interspace near the sternum should differentiate a cardio-aortic fistula from aortic incompetence but the accompanying Corrigan pulse gives little help for it is present in both conditions.

It is more doubtful whether a precise diagnosis can be made when the cardio-aortic fistula is present from birth for the advantage of the characteristic history of rupture is lost. The nature of the murmurs and their presence from early life will suggest a congenital heart lesion but it will almost certainly be impossible to distinguish between an aorto-pulmonary fistula and a cardio-aortic fistula and the differential diagnosis from patency of the ductus arteriosus may be difficult. The more superficial and harsher murmurs situated unusually low for that of a patent ductus, and the more striking Corrigan pulse, may lead to the suspicion of a cardio-aortic fistula, but these qualities are merely a matter of degree and it must be admitted that no reliable differential sign is available. Electrocardiography and radiography will give little help unless an enlarged pulmonary artery suggests patency of the ductus, for it has not occurred in aortic sinus aneurysms. Since surgical ligation of the ductus has become commonplace, it is fortunate that congenital cardio-aortic fistulae are rare.

SUMMARY

The nomenclature of the aortic sinuses is discussed and the topography of the aortic root illustrated.

Four cases with aortic sinus aneurysms, two congenital and two due to aortic disease are described.

Including these cases, a verified series of 25 congenital and 22 acquired sinus aneurysms has been collected.

The pathological features of the condition are illustrated by an analysis of this series of cases.

The embryology of congenital sinus aneurysms is briefly discussed.

The clinical features of congenital sinus aneurysms are described and diagnosis is discussed. Attention is directed to the striking clinical features associated with a cardio-aortic fistula.

When a congenital sinus aneurysm ruptures in later life we may, from the combination of history and physical signs, expect to recognize the presence of cardio-aortic fistula, if a congenital cardio-aortic fistula is present the existence of a congenital heart lesion will be manifest and, from the physical signs we may suspect the presence of a congenital cardio-aortic fistula or an aorto-pulmonary communication. Finally, although we cannot hope to diagnose an unruptured aortic sinus aneurysm, it is, like a bicuspid aortic valve, one of the silent congenital lesions to be suspected when bacterial

endocarditis develops in a heart apparently previously healthy

We wish to thank Professor Crichton Bramwell and Professor S. L. Baker for their advice and encouragement, and Dr. Evan Bedford for his advice in the preparation of the manuscript. For permission to publish clinical details we are indebted to Professor Bramwell (Cases 1 and 4) and Dr. F. R. Ferguson (Case 3). We are also indebted to Dr. G. Stewart Smith who sent us the specimen in Case 2. Miss Davison kindly prepared the half-tone drawings.

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THE Q-T INTERVAL IN ACUTE RHEUMATIC CARDITIS

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In the initial stages of rheumatic fever, carditis can usually be diagnosed with ease, since the significant murmurs are almost always to be heard. In the presence of polyarthritis, pyrexia, and raised sedimentation rate, it can be safely assumed that this carditis is active. It may, however, be extremely difficult to determine how long such activity persists; the temperature and pulse rate may be normal, the electrocardiogram may show no gross changes, and such laboratory tests as are performed may show no abnormality, and yet, in some of these cases, it seems probable that carditis is still active. This study is an attempt to use electrocardiographic data to supply criteria of such sub-clinical activity.

Donders (1868) originally studied the duration of systole on the radial plethysmograph. Two years later Garrod (1870), using the same technique, evolved a formula for correcting the first, or systolic portion of the plethysmograph, for heart rate, and suggested that alterations in the duration of systole might be useful in the diagnosis of heart disease.

Berliner in 1931 first noted that prolongation of the Q-T interval of the electrocardiogram occurred in rheumatic valvular disease. Drawe *et al* (1937) measured the Q-T interval in 100 rheumatic and 100 normal children. They showed that 25 per cent of the former and 4 per cent of the latter were above the upper limit of normal as judged by Ashman and Hull's (1937) criteria. They did not state, however, whether acute carditis was present when this measurement was taken. Taran and Szilagyi (1947) found that the duration of electrical systole, both absolute and relative to diastole, was significantly lengthened in all cases of acute rheumatic carditis. They further stated that this prolongation was not a function of the cardiac rate, but rather of the severity of the disease, that this prolongation preceded all other laboratory criteria of rheumatic activity, and that it did not return to normal until long after all other diagnostic signs had reverted to normal.

In view of the importance of this statement an investigation was undertaken to see whether prolongation of the Q-T interval was a reliable index of active carditis and whether it could prove of prognostic significance.

MATERIAL

In all, 134 cases were studied. The patients were under treatment in the special unit for juvenile rheumatism at the Canadian Red Cross Memorial Hospital, Taplow, no special selection of cases was made. Some were local patients, admitted in the initial stages of the rheumatic attack, but the majority were transferred from other institutions, provincial and metropolitan, throughout Great Britain, where they had already been under treatment for varying periods of time. The majority of the patients were children (see Table I).

TABLE I
AGE DISTRIBUTION

0-5 years	6 cases
6-10 years	56 cases
11-15 years	50 cases
16-20 years	13 cases
Over 20 years	9 cases

On admission to hospital the cases were divided clinically into one of three main groups, those presenting evidence of active carditis, those presenting evidence of inactive carditis, and those cases in which no clinical carditis was detectable. Carditis was diagnosed clinically by the presence of one or more of the following: a diastolic murmur, cardiac enlargement, the presence of a pericardial friction rub, tachycardia out of proportion to elevation of temperature, and grosser electrocardiographic changes such as prolongation of P-R interval. Activity was recognized by pyrexia, tachycardia, and raised sedimentation rate.

The group of cases of active carditis was further subdivided into those patients who showed a steady

uninterrupted recovery and those who showed evidence of prolonged rheumatic activity

TABLE II

CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF CARDITIS OR ABSENCE OF CARDITIS

1. Carditis	
(i) Active carditis	
(a) Uninterrupted recovery	55 cases
(b) Prolonged activity	45 cases
	100 cases
(ii) Inactive carditis	
	12 cases
2. No carditis	
	22 cases
	134 cases

METHODS

All electrocardiograms were taken on an American Cambridge continuous film electrocardiograph. The time marker was accurately checked against an oscillator of known frequency. All recordings were taken with the patient semi-recumbent at an angle of thirty degrees to the horizontal, Lombard and Cope (1919) having shown that systole varied with posture, being longer in the standing position.

The absolute Q-T interval varies slightly from complex to complex, as does the cycle length, but Katz (1921) showed that, while cycle length and the length of systole may vary phasically, these variations are not synchronous nor of like degree. To obviate distortion of cycle length by sinus arrhythmia, which in some cases was marked, the heart rate was calculated by counting the complexes over the entire length of tracing taken, covering at least two-thirds of a minute and usually one minute. The average cycle length was then calculated from the heart rate.

The Q-T interval was measured from the beginning of the Q wave until the end of the T wave in the standard lead in which the T wave was highest. This was usually lead two. At least six complexes were measured with calipers under a magnifying lens and the average length of the Q-T interval was taken.

The absolute duration of Q-T depends upon the heart rate, and thus measurements must be corrected for heart rate before they can be compared. Numerous formulæ exist for this correction (Lombard and Cope, 1919, Fridencia, 1920, Ashman and Hull, 1937, Schlamowitz, 1946). All these formulæ have been criticized, but the square root formula devised by Bazett (1920) is generally agreed to be one of the most reliable, and, because of its simplicity, has been used in this study. Taran and Szilagyi (1947) used Bazett's formula but expressed it as

$$K = \frac{Q-T}{\sqrt{C}} \text{ [where } C = \text{cycle length]} \text{ They called } K$$

the corrected Q-T or Q-Tc for short. This method and nomenclature have been adopted here.

Various values for the upper limit of Q-Tc have been laid down by different workers, Bazett (1920), Hegglin and Holzman (1937), Ashman and Hull (1937), and Taran and Szilagyi (1947). For this study electrocardiograms were taken on a short series of normal subjects, the upper limit of normal for Q-Tc was found to conform to Ashman and Hull's criteria which, accordingly, were adopted. Therefore the upper limit of the normal for Q-Tc has been taken as 0.422 second for men and children and 0.432 second for women.

RESULTS

(1) *Q-Tc and heart rate* It is imperative that any formula which is employed to correct Q-T for cycle length must not be distorted by extremes of heart rate. Bazett's formula was tested as shown in Fig. 1, in which 426 measurements of Q-Tc from

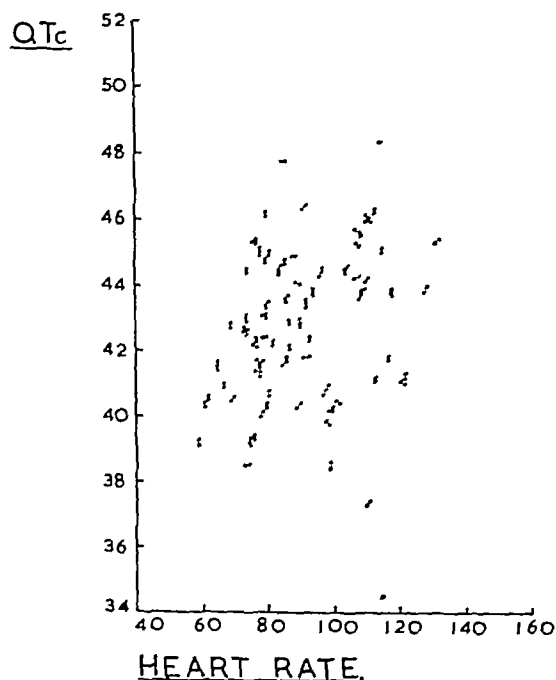


FIG. 1—Q-Tc correlated with heart rate

80 patients, both with and without carditis, are plotted against the heart rate.

The longest values for Q-Tc occurred with neither the slowest nor the most rapid heart rates, but did in fact appear at heart rates between 80 and 120. In the presence of active carditis it is natural that this degree of tachycardia should obtain.

TABLE III

RELATION OF QTc TO PRESENCE OF CARDITIS AND TO ITS DEGREE OF ACTIVITY

	Number of cases with carditis		Number of cases without carditis
	Active	Inactive	
Q-Tc prolonged	90	5	11
Q-Tc normal	10	7	11
Total	100	12	22

(2) *Q-Tc correlated with carditis* Table III shows that the Q-Tc was prolonged in ninety of a hundred cases of active carditis. In the remaining ten cases the Q-Tc was within normal limits. Two of these patients had suffered previous pericarditis which was shown by Tung (1941) to shorten Q-Tc. In the remaining eight cases no factor was present that is known to shorten the Q-Tc. In this series the upper limit of normal was taken as 0.422 second for children as opposed to 0.405 second used by Taran and Szilagyi (1947). This may explain why only 90 per cent of these cases of active carditis showed a prolonged Q-Tc against 100 per cent in Taran and Szilagyi's series. Out of twelve cases with rheumatic heart disease, which were considered inactive on admission, five showed

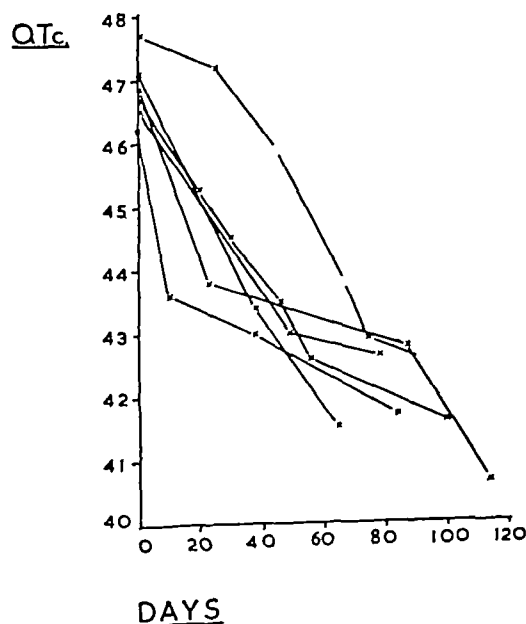


FIG 2—Behaviour of Q-Tc in six cases in Group 1 (a)

a prolonged Q-Tc. There was no other evidence of active carditis, but data given later in this paper tend to prove that this did exist. Of twenty-two cases considered to show no evidence of a heart lesion clinically, eleven cases showed a prolonged Q-Tc. Four of these cases were shown to have suffered carditis by the subsequent appearance of significant murmurs. It therefore seems probable that some of the remaining seven patients in this group suffered minimal cardiac damage, unrevealed by any of the criteria upon which a clinical diagnosis of carditis was made.

(3) *Q-Tc variation during the course of rheumatic fever* The behaviour of Q-Tc was studied, both in patients making a rapid recovery from the rheumatic attack (Table II, Group (a)) and those showing prolonged rheumatic activity (Group (b)). The behaviour of Q-Tc in six cases belonging to Group (a) is shown in Fig 2 and demonstrates the return of Q-Tc to normal with recovery.

Fig 3 shows the behaviour of a typical Group (a)

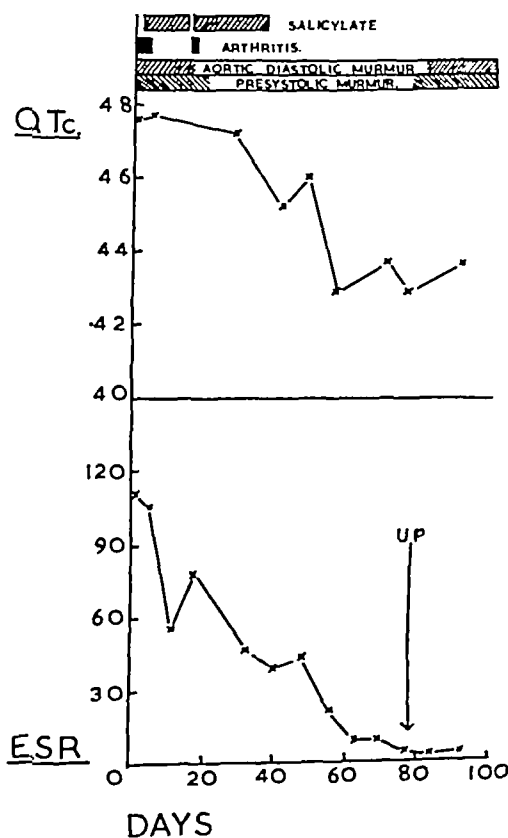


FIG 3—Behaviour of Q-Tc in a typical case in Group 1 (a)

case This patient was admitted in the initial stages of her third attack of rheumatic fever Mitral stenosis, due to previous rheumatic carditis, was present as witnessed by a presystolic murmur On admission the sedimentation rate was raised and the Q-Tc was grossly prolonged, which was taken as evidence of acute carditis in this attack With recovery her Q-Tc reverted to normal

Fig 4 and 5 demonstrate the behaviour of Q-Tc in two patients of Group (b) showing evidence of prolonged rheumatic activity, or what may be called chronic rheumatic carditis Fig 4 shows that although the sedimentation rate came down to normal occasionally, the Q-Tc was prolonged for the whole of the 240 days covered by the graph Prolongation of Q-Tc may occur in chronic rheumatic heart disease without active carditis This will be discussed later

Fig 5 illustrates another case in Group (b), in this instance complicated by congestive failure Two points should be noted the steady fall in sedimentation rate with the onset of congestive failure, and the rapid shortening of Q-Tc on two occasions when digitalis was exhibited This effect was noted by Cheer and Dieuwade (1931) This latter point is also illustrated by Fig 6 which

shows the shortening of Q-Tc in two normal patients when digitalis was exhibited In neither of these patients was the direction of the T wave seen to change in the electrocardiograms subsequent to the administration of digitalis

Fig 7 illustrates the effect on Q-Tc of an exacerbation of rheumatic carditis When admitted, this patient was judged to be quiescent, following a second attack of rheumatic fever The antistreptolysin titre was 150 units, the sedimentation rate was normal, and the Q-Tc was not prolonged Established heart disease was present and rheumatic nodules were noted He then developed scarlet fever, the Q-Tc immediately rose and at the same time the P-R interval lengthened from 0.16 to 0.27 sec The antistreptolysin titre rose to 400 and later to 833 units The sedimentation rate also rose and he suffered a severe exacerbation of carditis The P-R interval first came back to normal, this was followed by a return to normal of the sedimentation rate The Q-Tc, however, remained prolonged In the present series the P-R interval was always found to be normal when the Q-Tc was within normal limits

(4) *Correlation of Q-Tc and sedimentation rate*
The sedimentation rate still remains one of the most

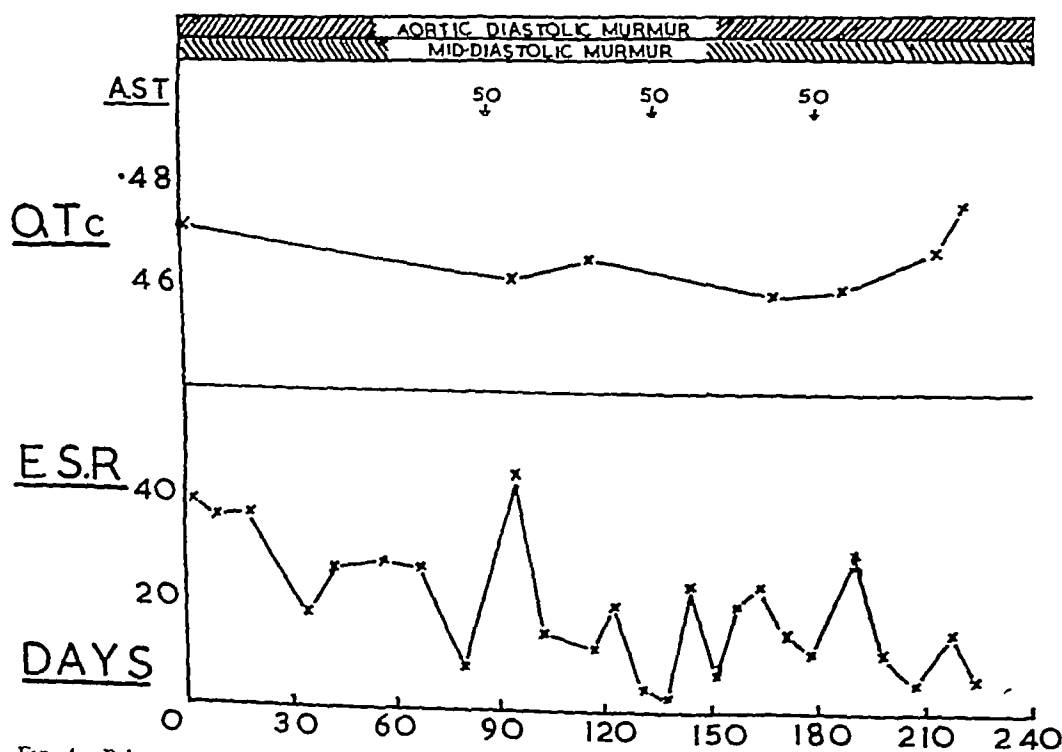


FIG 4—Behaviour of Q-Tc in chronic rheumatic carditis Group 1 (b) A.S.T = Antistreptolysin "O" titre

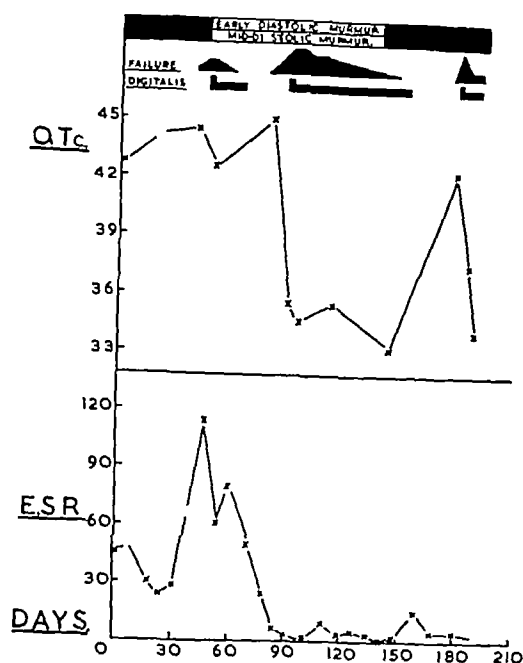


FIG 5—Behaviour of Q-Tc in another case with chronic rheumatic carditis. Note influence of digitalis on the length of Q-Tc and the fall in ESR with the onset of congestive failure

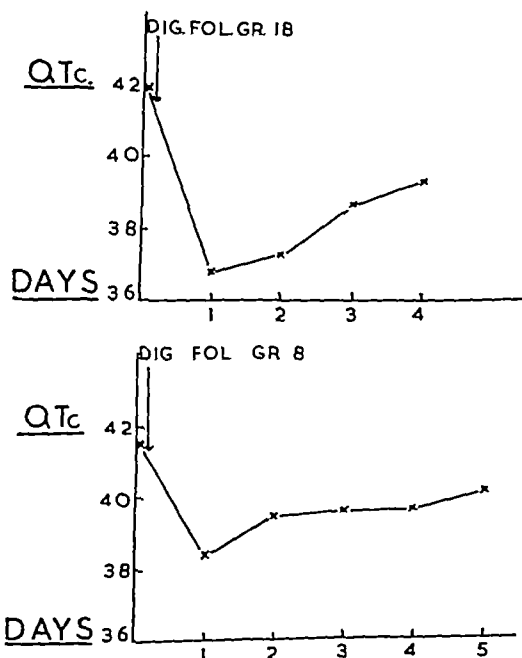


FIG 6—Effect of digitalis on Q-Tc in normal subjects

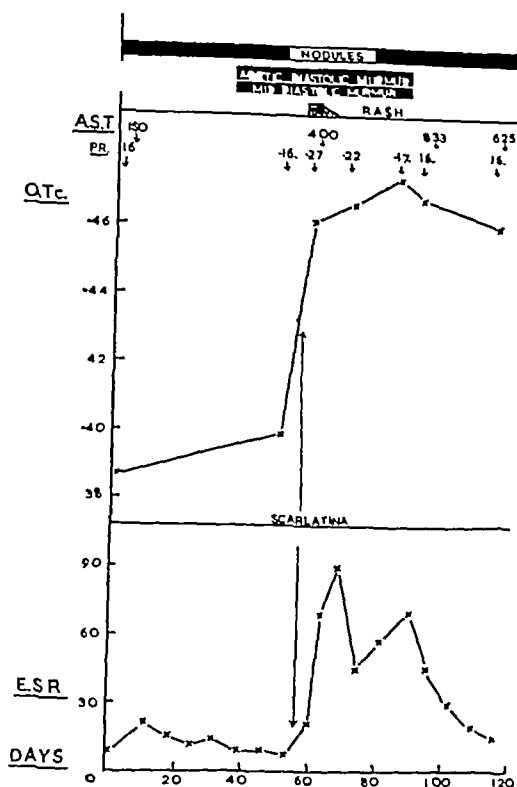


FIG 7—Recurrence of rheumatic carditis and Q-Tc. PR=P-R interval in seconds

important signs of rheumatic activity, accordingly, the duration of Q-Tc was compared with the sedimentation rate in patients with, and without, carditis. The results are illustrated in Fig 8.

In Fig 8, 293 readings of Q-Tc from sixty patients with active carditis are plotted against the sedimentation rate on a semi-logarithmic scale and it will be seen that in general, the length of Q-Tc varies directly as the sedimentation rate. It will be noted, however, that some patients with active carditis show a short Q-Tc in spite of a high sedimentation rate, some of these patients were suffering from pericarditis, and others were receiving digitalis, the effect of this drug on systole being well known. It will also be observed that the Q-Tc was frequently prolonged when the sedimentation rate was within normal limits. Such observations were made towards the end of the patients' stay in hospital, and illustrate the persistence of a long Q-Tc at a time when other evidence of activity, such as the sedimentation rate, had subsided.

Fig 9 shows 36 readings of 11 patients with

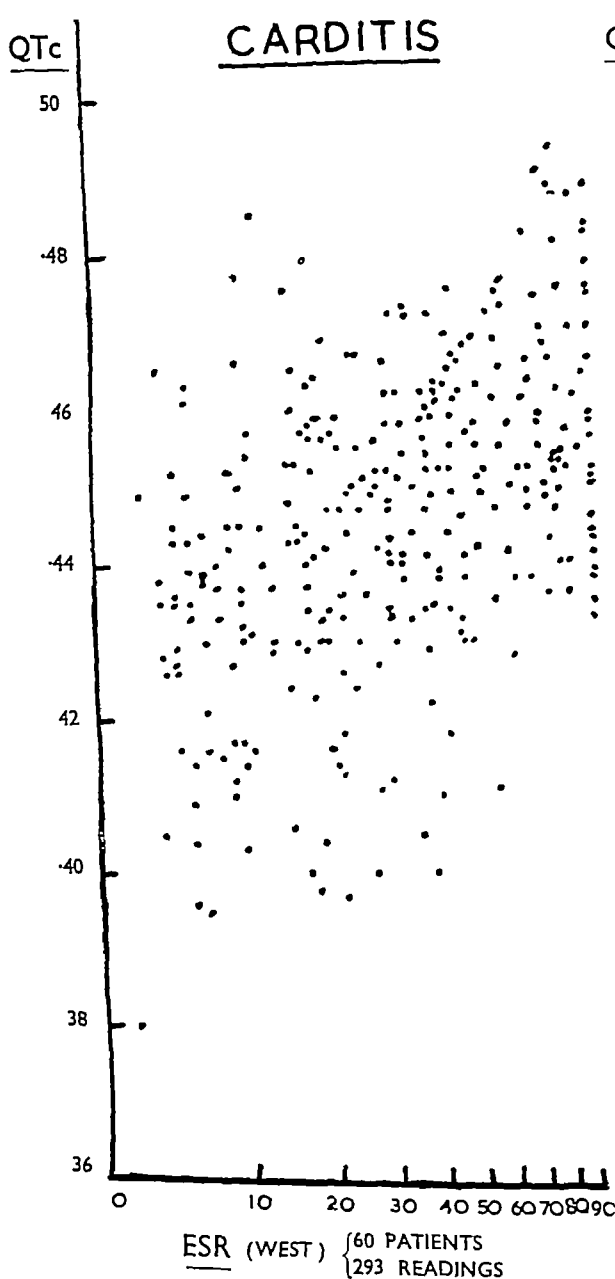


Fig 8—Correlation of Q-Tc with ESR in patients with active carditis. Compare Fig 9

acute rheumatic fever, but no clinical evidence of carditis, the Q-Tc is below the upper limit of normal in every case, and bears no relationship to sedimentation rate

(5) *Q-Tc and relapses* These findings confirm Taran's claim that prolongation of Q-Tc is a reliable

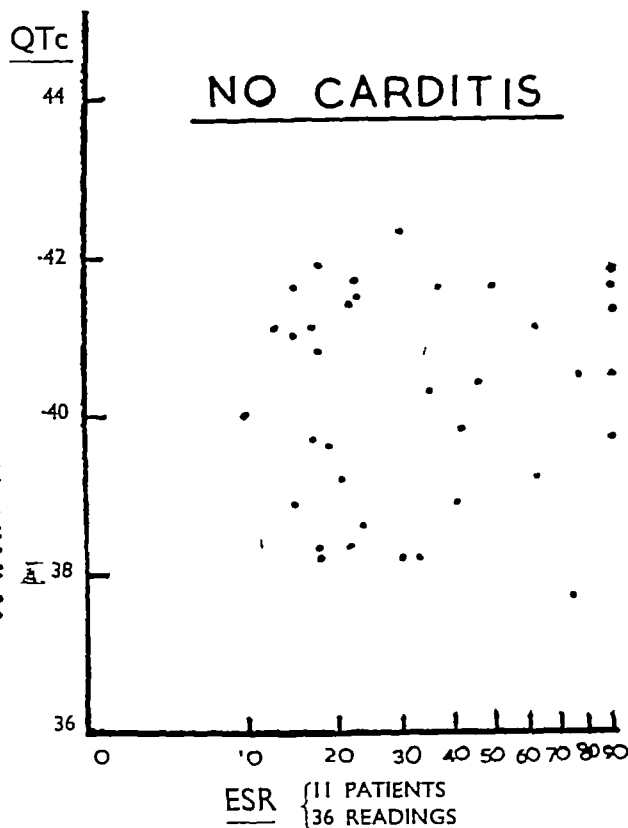


Fig 9—Correlation of Q-Tc with ESR in patients with acute rheumatic fever without carditis

index of active carditis. It follows therefore that increase in physical activity in the presence of a prolonged Q-Tc might theoretically be expected to precipitate a relapse. The relapses that occurred were analysed accordingly. Fig 10 illustrates this point.

This child was admitted in the middle of a severe attack of rheumatic carditis. The Q-Tc was grossly prolonged, the sedimentation rate was raised, erythema marginatum was noted, and a crop of nodules appeared. After 90 days in hospital the Q-Tc and the sedimentation rate were within normal limits. At this point she suffered another β -haemolytic streptococcal infection, which was followed by a severe exacerbation of carditis, the Q-Tc rose and a slower rise in sedimentation rate occurred. Rash and nodules re-appeared. Two hundred and sixty days after admission the sedimentation rate, temperature, and pulse rate had returned to normal. She was then considered clinically inactive and was allowed up, in spite of a prolonged Q-Tc. An immediate relapse followed, accompanied by a further rise in Q-Tc and sedimentation

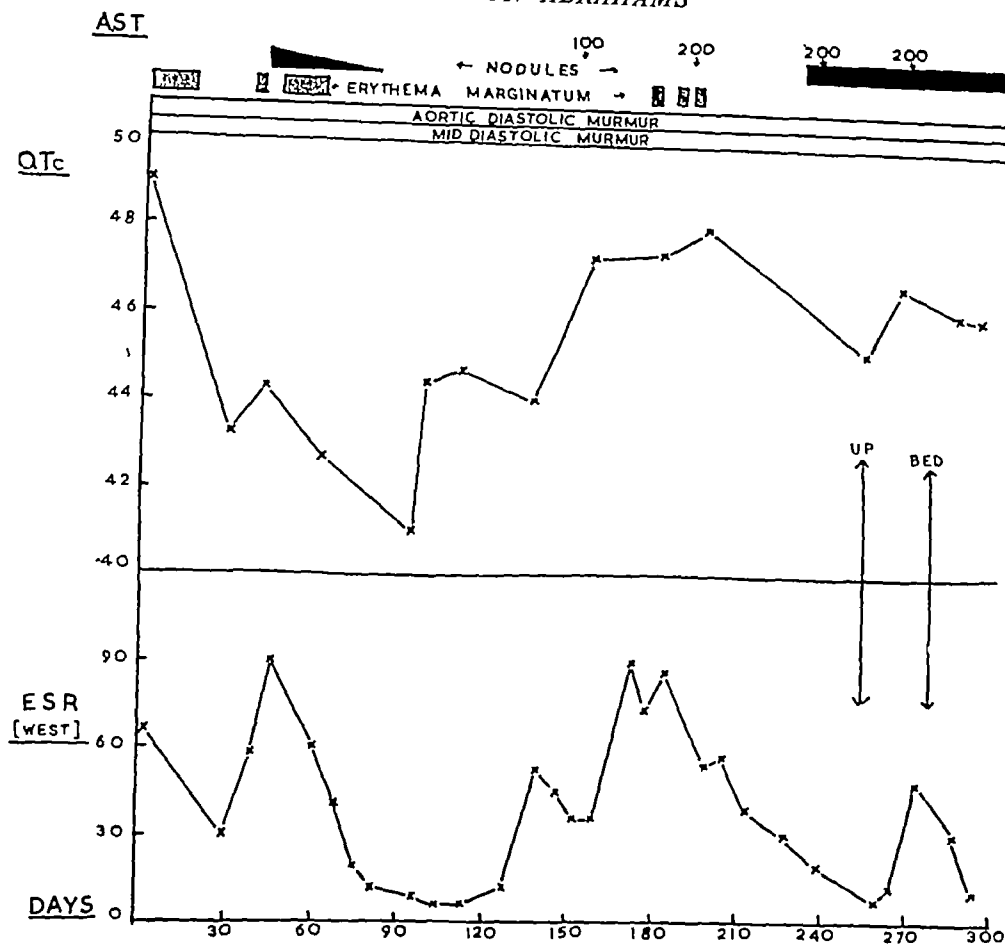


FIG 10—The effect of an increase in physical activity in the presence of a prolonged Q-Tc

rate, necessitating return to bed. The anti-streptolysin titre of 200 throughout this episode was very strong evidence against an occult streptococcal re-infection and subsequent rheumatic recurrence.

The criteria for judging an exacerbation of rheumatic carditis to be a relapse, rather than a recurrence, must be specified and adhered to rigidly. In much of the present series essential data were not obtained and definite conclusions could not be drawn. However, of twenty patients who apparently relapsed, fifteen were noted to have a long Q-Tc at the time that physical activity was increased. There was no other evidence of active carditis in any of these patients. This and other material is now under careful analysis to find out whether prolongation of Q-Tc at the time that physical activity is increased is a significant factor in causing relapses.

DISCUSSION

These results prove that prolongation of Q-Tc occurs in active rheumatic carditis, but throw no light on the mechanism of its production. It is extremely doubtful if alterations in the diastolic filling pressure, or in the diastolic volume of the cardiac chambers, can be responsible, as in the majority of cases the venous pressure is not raised clinically. Prolongation of systole due to biochemical causes may be similarly discounted. In the patients who make an uninterrupted recovery from an attack of rheumatic carditis, it would appear that this prolongation depends upon actual involvement of the myocardium by the rheumatic process.

In chronic cases where the heart suffers prolonged myocardial and valvular damage other factors are involved. In this group, actual muscular hypertrophy of the heart, consequent on valvular

deformity, may be responsible in part for prolonging Q-Tc. Even minor degrees of ventricular hypertrophy may now be detected by modern electrocardiographic methods. Prolongation of Q-Tc due to this cause has been noted by Berliner (1931) and Drawe *et al* (1937). Comparable lengthening occurs in hypertensive heart disease, in cardiac failure from any cause, and in some cases of congenital heart disease, in particular, pulmonary stenosis. In all these conditions hypertrophy of the heart may occur and it seems possible that this increase in the bulk of heart muscle may lead to prolongation of Q-Tc. In cases in which the rheumatic process runs a severe and protracted course, giving rise to detectable ventricular hypertrophy, it would be unwise to ascribe prolongation of Q-Tc entirely to active carditis, especially when other signs of rheumatic activity are absent.

First degree heart block was noted in a number of patients. The incidence of this complication was not greater than has been previously described. It was noted, however, that prolongation of the P-R interval never occurred when Q-Tc was within normal limits, although the reverse obtained very frequently.

Until more complete data are available it does not seem justifiable to enforce long periods of bed rest when a long Q-Tc is the only abnormal finding.

Further work on this aspect of the problem may be of great help in assessing the degree of physical activity that may safely be permitted in the individual case.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Prolongation of Q-Tc is a valuable index of active carditis in rheumatic fever, and active carditis may be detected by the presence of a prolonged Q-Tc long after all other clinical and laboratory criteria of activity have gone.

Prolongation of Q-Tc may be the only evidence of cardiac involvement in acute rheumatic fever.

In chronic rheumatic carditis, prolongation of Q-Tc may be due to causes other than active carditis.

Measurement of Q-Tc may be of help in assessing the degree of physical activity that may be allowed in the individual case.

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I am also extremely grateful to Dr Paul Wood for his advice and encouragement at all times.

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A CLINICAL TRIAL OF RAUWOLFIA SERPENTINA IN ESSENTIAL HYPERTENSION

BY

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In a casual perusal of papers on hypertension, one comes across well over a hundred so-called hypotensive remedies alleged to possess the property of lowering the blood pressure. In 1930, Ayman could collect over two hundred reports on the successful treatment of hyperpiesia by various hypotensive remedies.

In view of the persistently high mortality from hypertension in spite of the large number of measures recommended in the treatment of this disease one is forced to admit the futility or helplessness of the situation. In Ayman's opinion, the "proper treatment is still unknown." Evans and Loughnan, after a critical analysis and trial of thirty-three different preparations in seventy cases of high blood pressure (essential hypertension), were forced to admit the uselessness of them all. In their opinion, simple sedative measures are often more effective than the much more expensive and fashionable products extensively displayed on the market.

There is unfortunately, a great tendency on the part of both the medical profession and the laity, to hail or applaud any new drug or measure introduced into the market, often on the basis of a few stray experiences or clinical impressions. In consequence of this attitude, many of the present day clinicians have learnt not to accept any claim for a new remedy unless and until its therapeutic value has been firmly established by resort to carefully controlled clinical observations.

My selection of *R. Serpentina* for the present study has not been entirely fortuitous. I have been prompted into the present enquiry by several factors. In the short span of ten years that the dried root of *R. Serpentina* has been on the market in India, in tablet form, there has been a growing demand in this country for these tablets. Preparations of the serpentina root have gained such unprecedented popularity for hypertension cases in

this country, that there is hardly a patient with high blood pressure who has not been subjected to its effects in one form or another. One manufacturing firm alone claims to have sold over 50 million tablets of the dried root. One of the aims of the present investigations has therefore been to determine if this enthusiastic reception of the drug is warranted. As early as 1940, I had made the following allusion to the subject of *R. Serpentina* treatment in cases of hypertension: "After a trial of this preparation one finds it useful in a percentage of cases of hypertension only, the indications and suitability of the case for the drug have not as yet been worked out." Since that time, I have had the opportunity of observing the effects of this drug in a very large number of cases. After an extensive trial of various hypotensive remedies in several thousand cases of hypertension, both in private and hospital practice during the last ten years, I have found *R. Serpentina* to be the most consistently successful member of the whole group of hypotensive remedies. In reply to a recent questionnaire issued by me to fifty physicians from all over India, forty-six voted for *R. Serpentina* as being the best "hypotensive" in their experience.

In view of this overwhelming body of support in favour of regarding *R. Serpentina* as the remedy of choice, I have considered it opportune to subject this preparation to a more critical analysis and to try and form an unbiased opinion of its value as a hypotensive agent. In the present investigation I have tried to steer clear of those fallacies involved in the interpretation of therapeutic results to which particular attention has been drawn by Ayman, Kapernick, and others. There is an unfortunate tendency to claim success in the treatment of essential hypertension merely on the basis of symptomatic improvement. In the opinion of Ayman, the successful treatment of hyperpiesia, implies, of neces-

sity, a substantial reduction in the level of the blood pressure In Kapernick's opinion, "although symptomatic response is relatively easily obtained, reduction of blood pressure is difficult" This has been the experience also of Evans and Loughnan, who found that although good symptomatic relief can be obtained in cases of hypertension with a large number of remedies, the much more desirable hypotensive effect is rarely noted The factor of natural lability of the blood pressure, so common in hypertensives, is often lost sight of, in the interpretation of results, as a result, perfectly normal or natural fluctuations are mistaken or misconstrued for evidences of the therapeutic value of the drug under trial

According to Evans and Loughnan, any remedy before it can be accepted as having established a claim as a hypotensive agent must satisfy certain standards of efficiency, viz (1) it should be capable both of reducing a blood pressure that is high and of maintaining it at the lowered value, (2) it should be able to exhibit its hypotensive action consistently and in a high proportion of patients, and (3) it should be free of all toxic ill-effects

AN INTRODUCTION TO RAUWOLFIA SERPENTINA

The use of vegetable extracts in the treatment of high blood pressure is not new Both, watermelon seeds and the mistletoe plant have been tried in the past, without gaining general endorsement In 1939, Graham had reported benefit in cases of hypertension from the use of the tincture of hawthorne (*Crataegus oxycantha*)

R. Serpentina (variously known in India as sarpagandha, chandrika, chotachand, chandra, dhanmarna, dhan-barua, patala-gandhi, and covanamilpori) or the Serpentina plant is a large climbing or twining herb or shrub, belonging to the natural order *Apocynaceae*, and found in the Himalayas, in Assam, Pegu, Tennasserim, Java, the Deccan peninsula, and the Malaya peninsula

The root of this plant has been popular, both in India and in the Malay peninsula, from ancient times, as an antidote to the stings and bites of insects and poisonous reptiles It has been used also as a febrifuge, as a stimulant to uterine contractions, for insomnia, and most of all for insanity More recently, its clinical application has been extended, with success, to cases of high blood pressure

Early researches on *R. Serpentina* showed that it contained an alkaloid which was provisionally called pseudobrucine On account of its popularity with practitioners of indigenous medicine, the chemical composition of the serpentina plant has

been subjected to considerable scrutiny Sen and Bose (1931) discovered two alkaloids in its root, the total alkaloid content being about 1 per cent of the dried root, there being also a lot of resin and starch Siddiqui and Siddiqui (1931) found, besides phytosterol, oleic acid, and unsaturated alcohols, five alkaloids, which were classified by them into two groups, viz (1) The ajmaline group of three white crystalline, weak bases, ajmaline, ajmalinine, ajmalicine, and (2) the serpentine group of two yellow crystalline stronger bases, serpentine and serpentinine

On the basis of experiments on frogs, Siddiqui and Siddiqui showed that the ajmaline group acts as a general depressant to the heart, respiration, and central nervous system, whilst the serpentine group causes paralysis of respiration, depression of nerves, and stimulation of the heart Sen and Bose studied the pharmacological effects of the *R. Serpentina* alkaloids on cats and other higher animals They reported a small drop of blood pressure, a stimulation of the respiration, a depression of the heart muscle and a relaxation of plain muscle-tissue (e.g. of the uterus and intestines) Roy (1931) found that large doses induce sleep, cause dulling of sensations and diminution of reflexes Fatal doses caused death from respiratory failure the heart continuing to beat for some time after Chopra has been engaged in pharmacological researches on the *R. Serpentina* since 1932, but the results of his work are not as yet known It is claimed by certain manufacturers that the root from a well-reared and scientifically cultivated serpentina plant yields about three times more of the active alkaloids than the root from the wild plant, which is thinner, more stunted and often marred by exposure to the sun, rain, and frost

On the basis of experimental and clinical studies, the root of *R. Serpentina* is said to have the following pharmacological attributes (1) By action on the vaso-motor centre, it leads to generalized vasodilatation, with a lowering of blood pressure (2) By depressant action on the cerebral centres, it soothes the general nervous system (3) It exerts a sedative action on the gastric mucosa and a stimulating action on the plain musculature of the intestinal tract (4) It stimulates the bronchial musculature

A vague reference to the use of a tincture or alcoholic extract of the root of *R. Serpentina*, in cases of high blood pressure, was made in 1942 by Paranjpe He claimed improvement, without any statistical backing, in most cases of hypertension, the hypotensive action was said to be particularly gratifying in elderly subjects and in the case of the diastolic pressure, the tincture was said to be a

good cough-sedative and diuretic. In two cases reported by Paranype, there had been a permanent reduction of blood pressure for well over a year, on occasional doses of the tincture.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

Selection of patients The fifty patients for investigation were selected from amongst a large number of cases of essential hypertension, who reported regularly at the clinic for treatment and who showed their willingness to co-operate. The diagnosis of essential hypertension was accepted on the basis of a routine clinical examination and investigations including urine analysis, ophthalmoscopic examination, orthodiagraphy, electrocardiography, and (in some cases) renal function tests and teloradiography. Only patients with systolic pressure over 160 and diastolic over 95 mm were admitted into this series. Cases of nephritic or renal hypertension, secondary hypertension, and malignant hypertension (diagnosed on the basis of clinical and ocular criteria) were rigidly excluded. Of the 50 patients selected for study, 30 were males and 20 females, ranging in age from 39 to 76 years, the average age for the series being 59 years.

Each patient was instructed to report for examination periodically, according to a rigid and pre-arranged plan. The routine adopted in each case was identical, viz after an initial examination and check-up of the blood pressure (reading A), the patient was kept on a sedative capsule (containing 0.25 grains of prominal or phemitone) given three times daily for two weeks, the blood pressure being recorded again (reading B) and accepted as the actual "pre-treatment" level. This preparatory period of sedation exerts in my opinion a sort of stabilizing influence on the blood pressure of hypertensives, especially in those with hypersensitive nervous systems. Administration of *R. Serpentina* tablets (one *serpina* tablet three times a day after meals) was then started, this dose being kept up for four weeks. The only other preparations permitted, during *R. Serpentina* therapy, were laxatives, insulin injections (in diabetics), and occasionally tablets of aspirin for headaches. During *serpina* treatment, the blood pressure was checked and recorded once weekly (readings C, D, E, and F). In a few of my cases, the fall was so precipitate that further treatment had to be discontinued. After four weeks of *serpina* treatment, all medication was stopped for four weeks, during this interval or period of no treatment, the blood pressure was recorded twice, at fortnightly intervals (readings G and H). A second course of *serpina* tablets (in the same doses) was then started and continued for

two weeks, at the end of this course, the blood pressure was recorded for the last time (reading J). The following nine sets of blood pressure readings were, therefore, recorded in each case: (A) at start of investigation, (B) after two weeks of sedative therapy, (C) after one week of *serpina* therapy, (D) after two weeks of therapy, (E) after three weeks of therapy, (F) after four weeks of therapy, (G) after a fortnight of no medication, (H) after four weeks of no medication, and (J) after two weeks of *serpina* treatment (second course).

The ritual observed at each check-up of the patient was properly standardized. At each attendance (arranged between the hours of 3 and 6 p.m.), the patient was made to rest in the waiting room for about half an hour. After a short history of symptoms and an enquiry for toxic reactions, the patient was subjected to a thorough clinical examination. The blood pressure was recorded in the recumbent posture with the aid of a new Baumanometer, in accordance with the suggestions of the joint British and American Committees for standardization. Of three consecutive readings at each sitting, only the third or last was accepted for recording purposes. All the observations reported here were made by me using the same instrument throughout.

In the present investigation, I have not concerned myself much with the improvement in individual symptoms, reported by patients, such a determination being liable to errors of interpretation. In any case, the symptomatic status of such a case bears little or no relationship to the level of the blood pressure.

In the presentation of results, all rises or falls of systolic blood pressure of less than 10 mm and of the diastolic of less than 5 mm have been classified as "insignificant," rises or falls of systolic pressure between 10 and 24 mm and of the diastolic between 5 and 14 mm as 'moderate' and rises or falls of the systolic exceeding 25 mm and of the diastolic exceeding 15 mm have been classified as marked.

RESULTS OF INVESTIGATION

After two weeks of sedative therapy After two weeks 28 of 50 patients showed a drop of systolic pressure ranging from 2 to 12 mm, the average fall being 6 mm. In 17 of the cases there was a rise ranging from 2 to 14 mm, with an average of 4 mm. In the remaining 5 cases, there was no alteration at all. Taking all 50 cases into consideration the average drop of systolic blood pressure after two weeks of sedation works out at under 2 mm.

In the case of the diastolic blood pressure there was a fall in 30 cases ranging from 2 to 8 mm with an average of 3 mm, in 7 cases there was

an actual rise ranging from 2 to 10 mm, with an average of 4 mm

AFTER ONE WEEK OF R SERPENTINA THERAPY

The immediate response of the blood pressure to *R. Serpentina* therapy is shown in Table I

TABLE I

CHANGES OF SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE AFTER ONE WEEK OF R SERPENTINA THERAPY

Extent of alteration in blood pressure	Systolic blood pressure		Diastolic blood pressure	
	No of cases	Per cent	No of cases	Per cent
From +10 to +6 mm	1	2	1	2
+5 to +1 mm	8	17	8	17
No change—	2	4	4	8
-1 to -4 mm	7	15	18	38
-5 to -9 mm	11	23	12	25
-10 to -14 mm	7	15	4	8
-15 to -19 mm	2	4	1	2
-20 to -24 mm	5	10	0	0
-25 to -29 mm	2	4	0	0
-30 to -34 mm	2	4	0	0
-35 to -40 mm	1	2	0	0
From +10 to -40 mm	48	100	48	100

Systolic blood pressure Of the 48 cases studied (two of our patients having absented themselves), as many as 37 cases showed a drop of systolic pressure, ranging from 2 to 38 mm with an average drop of 13 mm. In 2 cases it remained unaltered whilst in 9 there was actually a paradoxical rise, ranging from 2 to 6 mm with an average rise of 3 mm.

A "moderate" fall (i.e. 10 to 24 mm) was noted in 14 out of 48 cases and a "marked" fall (i.e. 25 mm or over) in 5 cases. In other words, of my 48 cases, 19 cases (or 39.5 per cent) showed a response within a week of commencement of serpina treatment.

Diastolic blood pressure Of the 48 cases, 35 showed a fall of diastolic pressure ranging from 2 to 18 mm, with an average of 6 mm, in 4 cases the diastolic level remained unaffected whilst in 9 there was an actual rise ranging from 2 to 6 mm with an average of 3 mm.

The diastolic fall was classified as being of "moderate" degree (i.e. 5 to 14 mm) in 16 cases and as "marked" (i.e. 15 mm or over) in 1 case. A good result (i.e. a diastolic drop of 5 mm or more) was therefore obtained in 17 cases (See Table I).

In 35 of my 48 cases, there was a drop of both systolic and diastolic pressure, after one week of drug treatment, in 6 cases there was a paradoxical rise of both systolic and diastolic pressure whilst in the remaining 6 cases there was a rise of one with a fall of the other.

AFTER FOUR WEEKS OF R SERPENTINA THERAPY

The delayed response of the blood pressure to drug therapy is given in Table II

TABLE II

CHANGES OF SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC BLOOD PRESSURE AFTER FOUR WEEKS OF R SERPENTINA THERAPY

Extent of alteration in blood pressure	Systolic blood pressure		Diastolic blood pressure	
	No of cases	Per cent	No of cases	Per cent
From +20 to +11 mm	1	2	0	0
+10 to +1 mm	6	13	6	13
No change—	0	0	3	7
-1 to -9 mm	5	11	17	36
-10 to -19 mm	14	30	18	38
-20 to -29 mm	9	19	2	4
-30 to -39 mm	10	21	1	2
-40 to -49 mm	1	2	0	0
-50 to -60 mm	1	2	0	0
From -20 to -60 mm	47	100	47	100

Systolic blood pressure Of the 47 cases studied (three failed to report for check-up), as many as 40 responded to serpina therapy by showing a drop of systolic pressure, ranging from 2 to 54 mm with an average of 21 mm. A rise of 4 to 12 mm, with an average of 6 mm was noted in the remaining 7. Taking all the cases into consideration, the average fall worked out at 19 mm, with a range of +12 to -54 mm.

The systolic fall was described as being "moderate" in 22 cases out of 47 and as "marked" in 13 cases. In other words, a good systolic response (i.e. 10 mm or over) was noted in 35 of 47 cases, after four weeks of serpina therapy.

Diastolic blood pressure In 38 out of the 47 cases there was a drop of diastolic pressure ranging from 4 to 34 mm, with an average of 11 mm, in 3 cases, the diastolic level remained unaltered whilst in 6 cases there was an actual rise varying between 2 and 10 mm, the average being 5 mm. Taking all cases into consideration, the diastolic pressure showed an average drop of 10 mm, the range of variation being from +10 to -34 mm.

The diastolic fall, after four weeks of therapy, could be classified as "moderate" in 27 of the 47 cases and as "marked" in 7 cases. A good diastolic response (i.e. 5 mm or over) was therefore obtained in as many as 34 out of 47 cases.

In as many as 29 of my 47 cases there was a "moderate" or "marked" fall of both systolic and diastolic pressures, in 6 cases such improvement was confined to systolic levels only, and in 2 to the diastolic levels only.

Types of blood pressure response, during R Serpentina therapy. According to the rapidity and degree of fall of the systolic blood pressure during drug treatment, I have been able to recognize five main types of blood pressure curves: (1) A gradual fall continued throughout the course of treatment (21 of my 50 cases). (2) The plateau type, where the systolic level showed little or no alteration throughout treatment (12 cases). (3) A precipitate initial drop with a gradual decline subsequently (8 cases). (4) An initial plateau with subsequently, a gradual decline (5 cases). (5) A precipitate initial drop with subsequently a plateau (3 cases).

From the behaviour of the pressure (especially systolic), a graph can easily be constructed to determine the type of response to drug treatment, in any given case.

AFTER CESSATION OF R SERPENTINA THERAPY

These studies were undertaken with a view to determine whether the hypotensive action of serpina is strictly limited to the period of its administration or whether it is continued for some time after.

After two weeks. The persistence of the hypotensive action of *R Serpentina* was studied in the 41 cases in my series, who had responded to its administration by a fall of blood pressure, unfortunately, 5 of these having failed to report for their periodical check-up, our enquiry has had to be limited to a total of 36 cases. Two weeks after stoppage of serpina treatment, the results were as follows. In 22 of the 36 cases the low levels induced by serpina tablets were well maintained, in 8 cases they were partially maintained, in 3 cases they had returned to their levels of before treatment, in the remaining 3 cases there was a further fall.

After four weeks. Thirty-nine cases could be investigated from this point of view. The results were as follows. In 10 the low levels were well maintained, in 15 cases they were partially maintained, in 10 cases they had returned to the level before treatment, in 4 cases the pressure showed a further drop. The hypotensive action of *R Serpentina* was, therefore, perceptible in 91 per cent

of my cases for two weeks and in 74 per cent for four weeks after discontinuance of the drug.

AFTER A SECOND COURSE OF R SERPENTINA

In order to test the drug for consistency of action, all the 50 cases of my series were subjected to a second course of serpina tablets after an interval of four weeks. The tablets were administered in the same doses, but for two weeks only. The results of this second course were most satisfactory, making allowance for the fact that as many as 36 per cent of the cases were still under the hypotensive influence of the first course of tablets. The average drop of systolic blood pressure after the first course had worked out at 17 mm, the maximum fall recorded in any case being 44 mm. In the case of the diastolic pressure, the corresponding values worked out at 7 mm and 22 mm respectively.

After two weeks of the second course, the average systolic fall worked out at 10 mm, the maximum drop in any case being 24 mm. The corresponding values for the diastolic pressure were 5 mm and 12 mm respectively.

The blood pressure behaviour after the second course of tablets was very similar to that after the first, in the great majority of the cases. However, in one case there was a drop of pressure during the first course but a rise during the second, the reverse happened in one case.

TOXIC EFFECTS AND REACTIONS FROM R SERPENTINA

After having used the dried root of *R Serpentina* in several thousand cases of high blood pressure, both in hospital and private practice, I can vouch for the non-toxicity of the drug with confidence, I have, so far, not come across a single fatality from the administration of this preparation. Even when the administration has been continued without a break for as long as two to five years (as in some of my cases), and even in the presence of cardiac or renal complications, there have been no ill-effects of a serious disabling or permanent nature.

The following reactions were reported by some of my cases, during the present investigation:

Excessive drowsiness or sleepiness	6 cases
Feeling of depression or lassitude	4 cases
Diarrhoea	3 cases
Anorexia	2 cases
Nausea and vomiting	2 cases
Vertigo or giddiness	2 cases
Increase of polyuria and nocturia	2 cases
Abdominal griping pain	1 case

The commonest disturbance after *R Serpentina* administration, in my experience, has been that of

excessive drowsiness or sleep, to some of the hypertensives suffering from insomnia, this may prove a blessing in disguise. Diarrhoea is usually of a mild order and responds readily to treatment. On the whole, *R. Serpentina* preparations are very well tolerated by patients and appear non-toxic in therapeutic doses. The only contra-indications, in my opinion, are severe or intractable diarrhoeas or dysenteries and cases of hypertension of renal or malignant type, where this form of treatment proves of no avail.

At the present time, *R. Serpentina* preparations, as manufactured in India, have one serious drawback to their use, not being properly standardized or assayed, the hypotensive action of the drug is not strictly constant from batch to batch of the drug. For some time now, the physicians of this country have felt the need for a more satisfactory and standard preparation of this drug, the action of which can be predicted at all times.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The hypotensive action of *Rauwolfia Serpentina* (NO *Apocynaceae*) has been subjected to clinical trial in a series of fifty cases of essential benign hypertension. Tablets of the dried root of this plant were prescribed in optimum doses, the patients being subjected to periodical check-ups of the blood pressure, according to a pre-arranged plan.

Within a week of *R. Serpentina* therapy, 77 per cent of my cases showed a drop of systolic blood pressure ranging from 2 to 38 mm, with an average drop of 13 mm. A drop of 10 mm or over was noted in 40 per cent of cases.

In the case of the diastolic blood pressure, 73 per cent of cases displayed a drop ranging from 2 to 18 mm, with an average drop of 6 mm, a diastolic response of 5 mm or over was noted in 35 per cent. In 73 per cent of cases, there was a drop of both systolic and diastolic blood pressure after one week of therapy.

After four weeks of *R. Serpentina* therapy,

85 per cent of cases displayed a drop of systolic blood pressure varying from 2 to 54 mm with an average of 21 mm. A systolic drop of 10 mm or over was noted in as many as 74 per cent of cases.

In 81 per cent of cases, the diastolic pressure showed a drop of 4 to 34 mm with an average of 11 mm. A diastolic fall of 5 mm or over was noted in 72 per cent.

In 62 per cent of cases there was a "moderate" or "marked" drop of both systolic and diastolic pressure levels.

According to the behaviour of the blood pressure, I was able to recognize five types of response to *R. Serpentina* therapy, which have been described.

The hypotensive action was apparent in 91 per cent of cases two weeks after stoppage of all treatment and in 74 per cent even after four weeks of no treatment.

A second course, of two weeks, was tried in all the cases after an interval of four weeks, the blood pressure response to the second course of tablets was almost as good as during the first.

R. Serpentina appears to be a perfectly safe remedy, devoid of any serious or toxic ill-effects. Amongst the few unpleasant symptoms encountered during its administration, were excessive drowsiness (in 12 per cent), lassitude (in 8 per cent), diarrhoea (in 6 per cent), anorexia (in 4 per cent) and nausea with vomiting (in 4 per cent).

On the whole, the results of *R. Serpentina* therapy, in the present series, have been most encouraging. In most cases it was proved capable of lowering both systolic and diastolic blood pressure. Although its action is temporary in many cases, it can be reproduced successfully by a second administration of the drug. No serious reactions to therapy were encountered in any of the cases. *R. Serpentina*, therefore, satisfies all the criteria of a successful hypotensive agent formulated by Evans and Loughnan (1939). Judging from the results of the present investigation, it has a definite place in the treatment of cases of high blood pressure.

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THE PHONOCARDIOGRAPHY OF HEART MURMURS

PART I—APPARATUS AND TECHNIQUE

BY

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It was considered important to subject the points made by William Evans (1947) to further examination by phonocardiography. We hoped to define the sphere of usefulness of this instrument in aiding the clinician in the diagnosis of patients presenting with murmurs of the heart.

The Cambridge Instrument Company kindly supplied a standard phonocardiograph outfit in every way similar to that used by Evans. It was decided to attempt a rough estimate of the suitability of this instrument by taking gross clinical examples of organic heart disease and subjecting them to phonocardiography, since it was considered axiomatic that the instrument must be able to record all the murmurs that could be heard on simple clinical auscultation. It was soon found that the standard instrument was incapable of recording the majority of relatively high pitched systolic and diastolic murmurs.

The Research Department of the Cambridge Instrument Company then kindly agreed to develop a modern apparatus from the new physical data that have been made available over the last twenty years, it was agreed that the clinical and scientific aspects should be closely co-ordinated. The apparatus is described later.

Those concerned with the visual recording of the heart sound vibrations must be grateful for the work of Rappaport and Sprague (1941 and 1942) in amplifying the basic data on which a reliable phonocardiograph should be constructed.

The heart sound vibrations are modified by the thoracic tissues as they radiate to the chest wall. This distortion will vary from person to person and is probably dependent largely on the amount of adipose tissue of the thoracic organs and of the chest wall itself and must remain an indeterminate variable in clinical phonocardiography.

Once the heart sound vibrations have reached the

chest wall they are further modified for a clinician listening to the sounds with a stethoscope by the stethoscope, which produces a certain degree of attenuation of sounds of low frequency, and by the human ear, which in the auscultatory range has a practically logarithmic low frequency attenuation response (see Fig 2).

There are therefore three phonocardiographic records that may be considered physiological.

(1) A linear phonocardiogram. This is a visual record of the heart sound vibrations as they occur at the chest wall without any modification other than undistorted amplification, hence the term linear. The heart sound vibrations consist of an intense low frequency component (palpable but not audible) and a faint higher frequency component (audible). The linear phonocardiogram, however, resembles a jugular venous pulse record for it only shows the intense low frequency component. This component is 100,000 to 1,000,000 times more intense than the higher frequency vibrations which consequently cannot be shown on the same scale (see Fig 9A and B, 11A and B, Part II).

(2) A stethoscopic phonocardiogram. This is a visual record of the heart sound vibrations from the chest wall as modified by an average stethoscope, that is as presented to the human ear. Such records will show low frequency events such as the third and fourth heart sounds as well as the whole range of murmurs and are the most generally useful phonocardiograms (see Fig 4-8 and 10A and B, Part II).

(3) A logarithmic phonocardiogram. This is a visual record of (2) above, plus the additional modification of the average normal human ear. In other words it is a visual representation of the vibrations as presented to the sensorium of a listening clinician. The advantages of this type of record are firstly that its amplitude corresponds to the loudness heard by the clinician (a sound heard twice

as loud as another sound will be twice the amplitude of the other on the record), and secondly that as the low frequencies are extremely attenuated, a record taken from a patient with heart murmurs may be easier to interpret than one in which low frequency events are also recorded. Such a record should therefore be used to add to the information of a stethoscopic tracing (see Fig 3, 9B, 10C, 11A and B, Part II).

It is necessary to record simultaneously some other manifestation of cardiac activity to provide a reference tracing for interpreting the phonocardiogram. The following tracings have been used for this purpose—the electrocardiogram, the subclavian or jugular venous pulse, the apex beat cardiogram and in special cases the arterial pulses.

The electrocardiogram has been used extensively because it can be recorded easily, but the only reliable reference point it gives is that mechanical ventricular systole never precedes the QRS complex of the electrocardiogram.

Since the electrocardiogram gives no reference points in diastole it is misleading to use it to determine the phase of the cardiac cycle of any diastolic event, either sounds or murmurs (see Fig 5), it is, however, a valuable additional reference tracing to an apex beat or venous pulse recording, particularly when auriculo-ventricular dissociation is present or when there is some abnormality of propagation of the cardio-excitatory impulse.

The subclavian or jugular venous pulse gives, in addition to the onset of ventricular systole, the onset of auricular systole, the beginning of the second sound and a fair indication of the site of the third heart sound.

The apex beat tracing (linear phonocardiogram) gives the onset of ventricular systole, the beginning of the second sound and the third heart sound, it is as a rule easier to record by electrical means than the venous pulse and requires no time correction for vessel transmission of vibrations as does the venous pulse.

The heart sounds and most murmurs are noises in acoustic terminology, which means they are conglomerations of sound vibrations of various frequencies harmonically unrelated. In some cases, therefore, it is impossible to determine the exact onset of a murmur that follows a heart sound. Moreover, there is some variation in the vibrations recorded from one heart cycle to the next.

THE PHONOCARDIOGRAPH

The apparatus used consists of a crystal microphone, a two-stage valve amplifier, and a Cambridge double string Einthoven galvanometer. One fibre of this galvanometer is used for the electrocardio-

gram in the normal way, the other, which is used for the phonocardiogram, is tightened to its full extent in order to raise its high-frequency response. In this condition its sensitivity is about 1 mV/mm.

From examination of our phonocardiograms it will be noted that large excursions of the phonocardiographic fibre displace the electrocardiographic fibre. It has been proved experimentally that this is an air pressure phenomenon and not an electromagnetic interference, and that the phonocardiographic fibre is not affected by large excursions of the electrocardiographic fibre. The explanation of this effect lies in the greater sensitivity of the loose electrocardiographic fibre when it is calibrated for clinical use.

The microphone used is a Cosmocord Mic-6. This microphone was originally chosen because of its high sensitivity and high internal capacity. It has the disadvantage of being nearly 2 inches in diameter, so that good contact between the microphone and the chest is not always easy to attain. The sensitivity is stated by the makers to be about 10 mV/dyne/sq cm in the phonocardiographic frequency range.

The microphone is placed in a brass case which forms the chest piece. A ring of sorbo rubber is cemented to the case to assure good contact with a chest wall of irregular contour. The volume of the air chamber coupling the chest wall to the diaphragm is about 14 ml. The case is not intended to have any selective frequency properties, the intention is that the microphone and amplifier should have a fundamentally flat response, any other type of response being produced by controllable electrical filters in the amplifier.

The amplifier circuit is shown in Fig 1. As the output has only to operate a string galvanometer the gain is not high, the voltage gain from the input to the galvanometer terminals being 100. A switched attenuator, placed between the two stages, controls the gain in steps of 2, 1, and a universal shunt connected across the galvanometer gives continuous control of gain at any setting of the attenuator. In phonocardiography, calibration of the controls is of little value, but they must cover a very wide range in order to deal with the varying levels of heart sound vibrations encountered.

In order to make the fundamental response as flat as possible, a 10-megohm resistor is placed across the microphone, which has a capacity of 0.002 μ F. This gives a time constant of 0.02 second which, since it is the shortest time constant in the whole system, will control the low-frequency response, it should result in the response being down to half at about 8 c/cs. As explained later, such a response was not obtained.

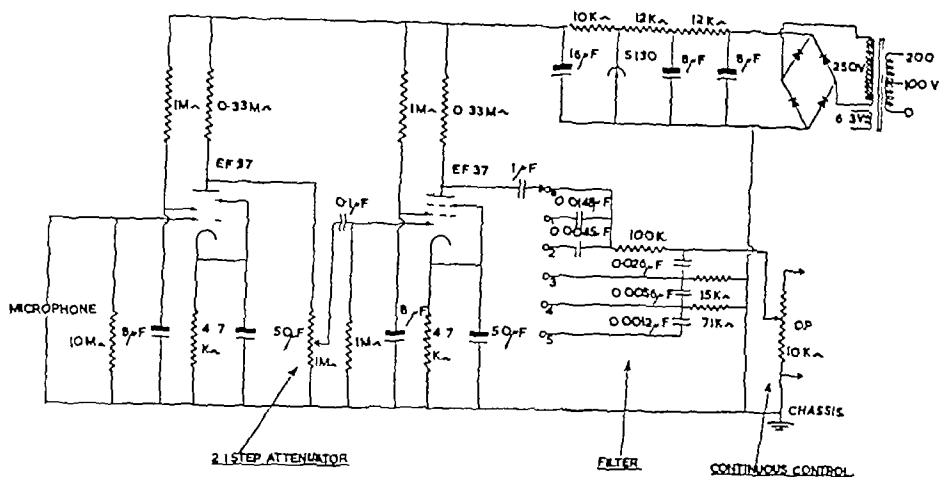


FIG 1—Amplifier circuit of phonocardiograph

A 6-position filter, controlling the low-frequency response, is placed between the output stage and the galvanometer. At setting 0 the amplifier response is flat. At settings 1, 2 and 3 single-stage condenser-resistance filters, giving time constants of 0.0064, 0.002 and 0.0004 seconds respectively, are provided. These values give a loss of 3 db at 25, 80 and 400 c/s respectively, and a loss approaching 6 db/octave below these frequencies (stethoscopic phonocardiogram settings).

At settings 4 and 5, a 2-stage and 3-stage filter respectively are introduced, the time-constant of each additional section being 0.0004 seconds. These filters begin to cut off between 400 and 500 c/s (like that of setting 3) and give a loss approaching 12 and 18 db/octave respectively below these frequencies (logarithmic phonocardiogram settings).

Fig 2 shows measured frequency responses for the assembly of microphone, amplifier, and galvanometer. These results were obtained by applying a variable frequency sound stimulus to the microphone with a pistonphone calibrator. Two points require comment. First, the low-frequency response at setting 0 is not flat, this is the result of acoustic leakage in the microphone assembly. The chief cause of this leakage is a felt ring which the makers fit round the rim of the microphone case. It is proposed in future to work without this ring, so that the response can be entirely controlled by the electrical circuit. Secondly, the response begins to fall above 500 c/s. This is the result of the galvanometer properties. The microphone has a resonance at about 2500 c/s, but the low galvanometer response at this frequency entirely masks this resonance.

The high-frequency response attained is probably sufficient for the purposes of phonocardiography.

Conventional mains power supplies are provided. Rough HT stabilization is obtained by an S 130 gas tube, and the valve heaters are run on a c HT variations and heater pick-up are not unduly troublesome, but improvements in both these respects are desirable.

Special cable, type K 16 G M made by Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Co Ltd, is used for the microphone input lead. This gives a very considerable reduction in the extraneous voltages produced when the microphone cable is moved in any way.

The advantages of a string galvanometer over other methods of recording high frequency phenomena are not great when an amplifier is essential. It was used in the research detailed in Part II because it was available. Comparative experiments have therefore been made with a double Duddell oscillograph, which has a wider frequency range and is more robust. This instrument, used in conjunction with appropriate amplifier circuits and a smaller microphone free from acoustic leakage, has been tried with promising results. Fig 9A and B, 11A and B, Part II were taken with such an apparatus. The addition of an electrocardiographic channel is under consideration, but the whole of the apparatus is regarded as purely experimental at the moment.

The tracings are photographed at a speed which facilitates the accurate reading of phonocardiograms.

(References will be found at the end of Part II)

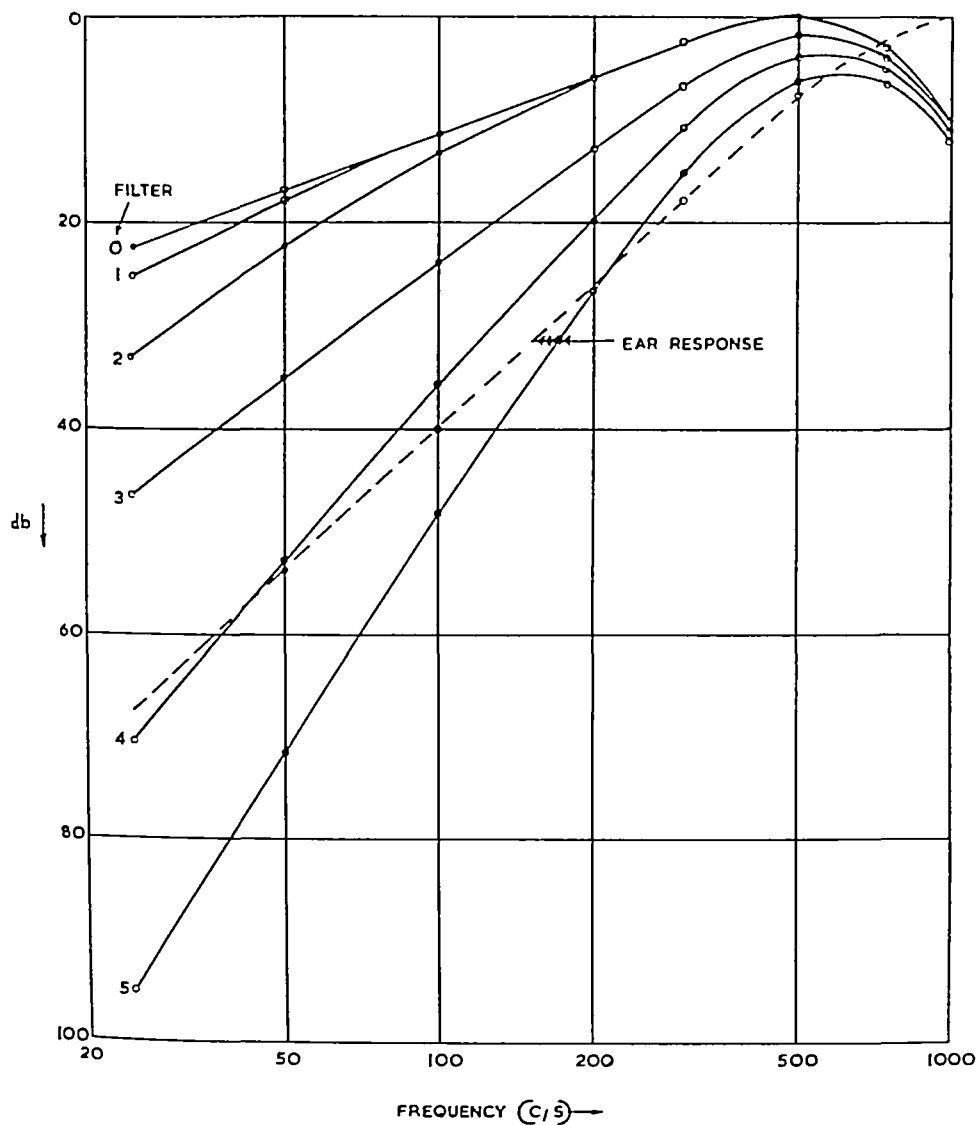


Fig 2.—Frequency response curves of phonocardiograph and of "normal" human ear (audiogram)

THE PHONOCARDIOGRAPHY OF HEART MURMURS

PART II—CLINICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

BY

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Papers by William Evans (1947) suggested that the phonocardiograph could aid the clinician in the elucidation of the following points (1) the distinction between the systolic murmur found with organic heart disease and the systolic murmur found with no organic heart disease, referred to as an innocent murmur, (2) the murmurs found in mitral stenosis, (3) the distinction between aortic incompetence of rheumatic as opposed to that of syphilitic ætiology, and (4) the presence of unsuspected aortic diastolic murmurs in cases of hypertension

SYSTOLIC MURMURS

One important problem in clinical cardiology is the investigation of systolic murmurs in the hope that the healthy youngster with a systolic murmur can be saved from some form of cardiac invalidism imposed by the medical profession

Evans (1947) found that the systolic murmurs in organic heart disease, with the exception of those found in hypertension, heart block, and a few cases of aortic valvular disease if recorded from the mitral area (which are all unimportant from the above standpoint), occur early in electrical systole, whereas the systolic murmurs recorded in subjects without clinical heart disease—the "innocent" group—occur in mid or late electrical systole

Evans used the S line, a line drawn through the end of the S wave of lead II of the electrocardiogram to touch the simultaneously recorded phonocardiogram to distinguish the two groups. A systolic murmur occurring at the S line was found in the organic group while a systolic murmur beginning some distance after the S line was found in the innocent group. In none of the innocent group was a diastolic murmur recorded

To investigate this point two series of cases were collected clinically and checked by cardioscopy and electrocardiography

Group I consisted of 57 cases of known congenital or valvular heart disease with systolic murmurs to auscultation and phonocardiography (see Fig 3-6, 8A, B, and C, 10A, B, and C)

Group II consisted of 27 cases with obvious systolic murmurs but with no other evidence of disease. An obvious systolic murmur has been taken as one lasting an appreciable interval into systole between the first and second heart sounds and of not less than moderate intensity (Grade III, Levine, 1945), for it is this group of murmurs that presents a clinical difficulty as to whether organic disease is present or not. In four cases the systolic murmur was loud or very loud (Grade IV or V) and one of these suffered an undoubted attack of subacute bacterial endocarditis after the investigation—emphasizing that an organic lesion was present although careful cardiological investigation revealed no deviation from the normal other than a loud systolic murmur. Twenty one of these cases (77 per cent) were aged 30 or under (See Fig 7A, B, and C)

The phonocardiograph employed recorded a stethoscopic or logarithmic phonocardiogram with lead II electrocardiogram as reference tracing (See Part I). The time-marker on all the records is 0.2 seconds. Records are marked to show the

TABLE I
RELATION OF ONSET OF SYSTOLIC MURMURS TO S
LINE IN LEAD II ELECTROCARDIOGRAM

Timing	Valvular or congenital heart disease 57 cases		No diagnosed heart disease 27 cases	
After S	38	66.6%	27	100%
At S	9	15.7%	—	—
Doubtful	10	17.5%	—	—

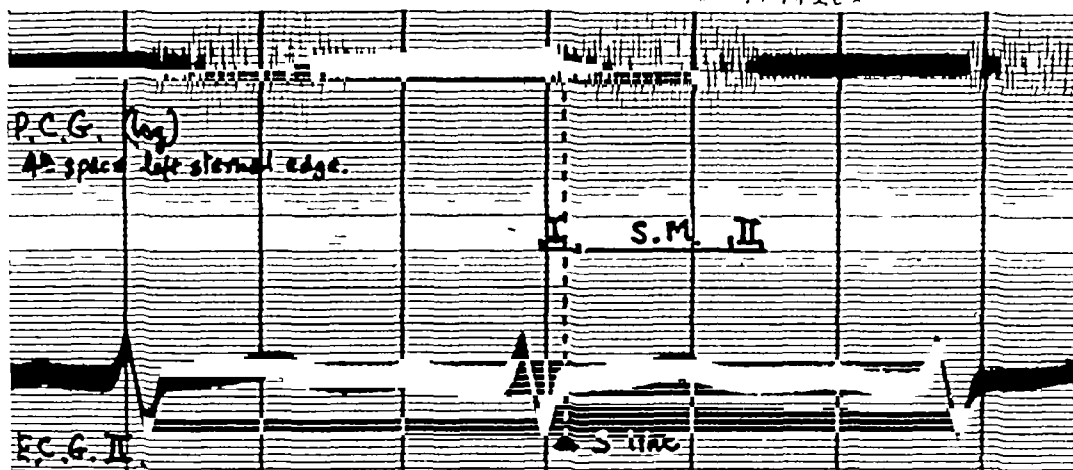


FIG 3—Ventricular Septal Defect Logarithmic phonocardiogram from site of maximal intensity of murmur—note that low frequencies in the first and second heart sounds are not recorded, and that the base line is very clear

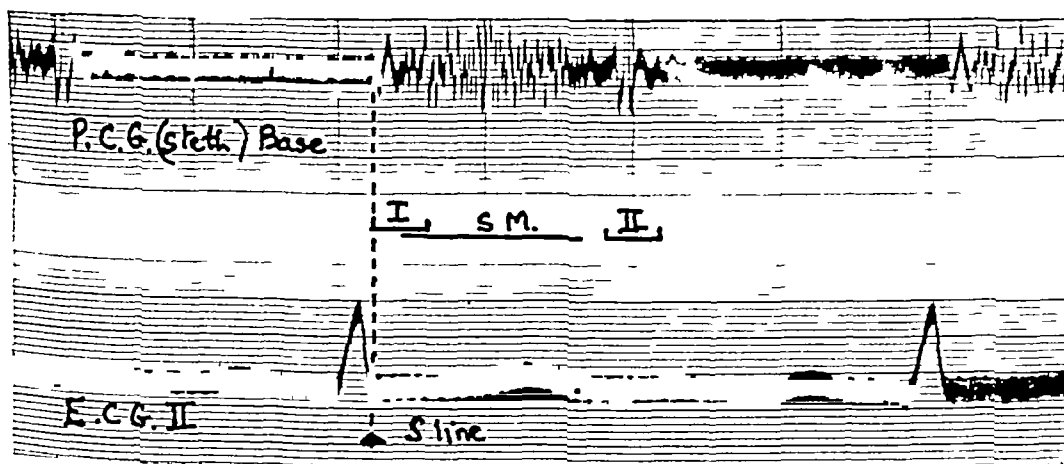


FIG 4—Aortic stenosis A second heart sound was audible at the base and is recorded

S line, the heart sounds I, II, III, and IV, systolic murmurs (S M), and diastolic murmurs (D M). Other lettering is explained under the appropriate figure. The site from which the record has been taken is indicated after the type of phonocardiogram shown (steth = stethoscopic, log = logarithmic).

It will be seen that in two-thirds of the organic cases the systolic murmur began after the S line, whereas only in 9 did it begin at the S line. A further analysis (Table II) of these 9 cases shows that a systolic murmur occurring at the S line can occur with most forms of valvular or congenital heart disease but wherever there were sufficient

cases to draw any conclusions it appears to be uncommon in any particular defect (See Fig 8A).

It would appear from this investigation that the systolic murmurs encountered in valvular and congenital heart disease cannot be differentiated from the systolic murmurs occurring with no recognizable heart disease by their relation to the S line of lead II of the electrocardiogram. For although in all the Group II cases the systolic murmur occurred after the S line, the same applied to at least 66 per cent of the cases in Group I.

It has been known for many years that mechanical and electrical systole in man and experimental

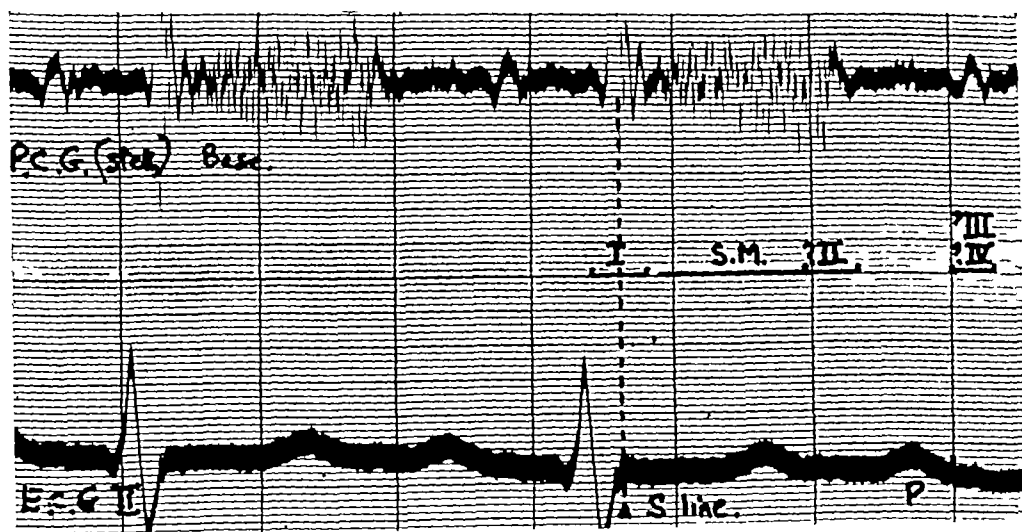


FIG 5—Pulmonary stenosis No second heart sound was audible or is recorded Record shows a low frequency event marked ?III ?IV which could be either a third heart sound because it occurs about 0.2 sec after the second heart sound, or a fourth heart sound occurring as it does just after the P wave of the electrocardiogram, or a combination of both The electrocardiogram cannot be used to differentiate these possibilities

TABLE II

ANALYSIS OF RELATION OF ONSET OF THE SYSTOLIC MURMUR TO THE CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS IN ORGANIC HEART DISEASE

Diagnosis	Site of record	No of cases with S M at S line	No of cases with S M after S line	No of cases with doubtful onset of S M
Aortic incompetence	Base	3	12	3
Aortic stenosis	Base	1	1	0
Mitral stenosis	Apex	1	11	2
Combined rheumatic valvular lesions	Apex	1	5	2
Active rheumatic carditis	Apex	1	0	0
Auricular septal defect	Base	1	0	2
Ventricular septal defect	4th space left sternal edge	1	2	1
Pulmonary stenosis	Base	0	3	0
Fallot's tetralogy	Apex	0	2	0
Patent ductus arteriosus	Base	0	1	0
Lutembacher's syndrome	Apex	0	1	0
Total	57	9	38	10

animals are not simultaneous either in onset or in duration (Wiggers, 1944) Such asynchrony would provide the simplest explanation for the varying relation of systolic murmurs to the S line of the electrocardiogram Thus in Fig 4 the whole of the first heart sound occurs after the S line

It will also be noted that it is a condition of the cases in Group II that they should have a normal electrocardiogram, whereas many cases in Group I had abnormal electrocardiograms often with a widened QRS interval However, only 3 of the 9 cases with a systolic murmur at the S line had a widened QRS interval

MITRAL STENOSIS

Evans (1947) found that when a systolic murmur was heard without a presystolic murmur in mitral stenosis, the murmur as recorded by phonocardiography started during the P-R period of lead II of the electrocardiogram in 33 out of 41 cases In other words the murmur was really presystolic and not systolic in timing and due to auricular contraction He also found that the systolic murmur never occurred later than the S line and that there was a mid diastolic murmur in all of his 74 cases

To test these points a consecutive series of 30 cases of mitral stenosis was investigated (See Fig 8A, B, and C) In 17 of these cases a systolic murmur was recorded as it was heard It never occurred



Fig 6—Atrial septal defect Note splitting of the first and second heart sounds This is not a good record as it shows 'mush'

during the P-R period of the electrocardiogram. In all 17 it occurred after the first heart sound. Its relation to the S line in lead II electrocardiogram was as follows:

After the S line in	12
At the S line in	2
Exact onset doubtful in	3

In 15 of the series a presystolic murmur was heard, and in all 15 cases it was clearly seen on the record during the P-R period of the electrocardiogram. It was always separate from a systolic murmur if present and also differed from such a systolic murmur in that its mean frequency was considerably lower (See Fig 8C).

The position of the second heart sound in Fig 8A and B has been determined by taking phonocardiographic records from the base of the heart where the second sound was clearly seen in these cases and transposing to the apical records. Apical and basal records were taken within a few minutes of one another (Fig 10A is a record from the base of the heart and Fig 8A an apical record in a case of combined mitral stenosis and aortic incompetence). The second heart sound is probably split in Fig 8C.

It is my impression that the sole information which the phonocardiograph has added to that of auscultation in the cases of mitral stenosis in this series is that a mitral diastolic murmur occurs more frequently than it is heard. However, one cannot be certain of this unless the record shows a clear base line, and this was not always obtained.

Problems such as whether an opening snap of the mitral valve is always present in mitral stenosis, and the differentiation of this snap from a third heart sound (which may be of diagnostic importance in mitral stenosis) could not be investigated owing to the limitations imposed by the apparatus in having no other reference tracing than the electrocardiogram. Fig 9A is an apical record from a case of mitral stenosis, with a linear phonocardiogram (apex cardiogram) as reference tracing in which a third heart sound is clearly indicated and in which no opening snap of the mitral valve is shown.

AORTIC INCOMPETENCE

Evans, in a series of 20 cases of aortic incompetence, found that 8 were clinically of syphilitic aetiology and 12 of probable rheumatic origin, although with no definite evidence of this after full cardiological investigation. After phonocardiography at the apex he considered that there was proof of rheumatic aetiology in 16 out of the 20 cases because of the presence of presystolic and mid-diastolic murmurs from added mitral stenosis.

To test this finding a series of 21 consecutive cases of aortic incompetence was investigated clinically (see Fig 10A, B, and C), 11 were considered to be of rheumatic, 5 of syphilitic, and 5 of unknown aetiology.

Of the 11 rheumatic cases, 5 had definite evidence of mitral stenosis both to clinical and to phonocardiographic examination (See Fig 10A and 8A taken from same patient). In the remaining 6

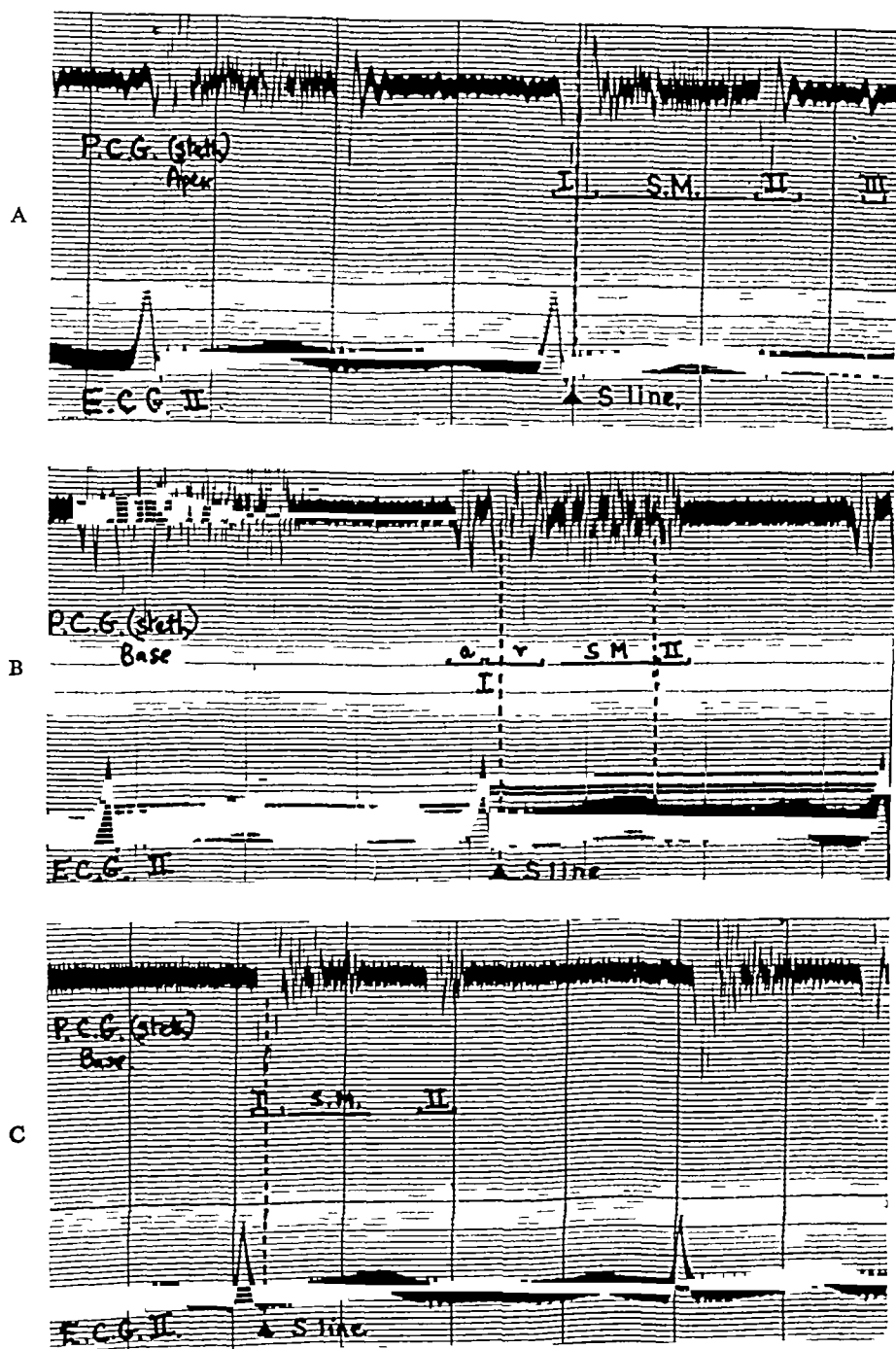


FIG 7—"Innocent" systolic murmurs. Note that the relation of the systolic murmur to the S line does not differ from that found in organic heart disease
In (B), note the auricular part of the first heart sound (a)

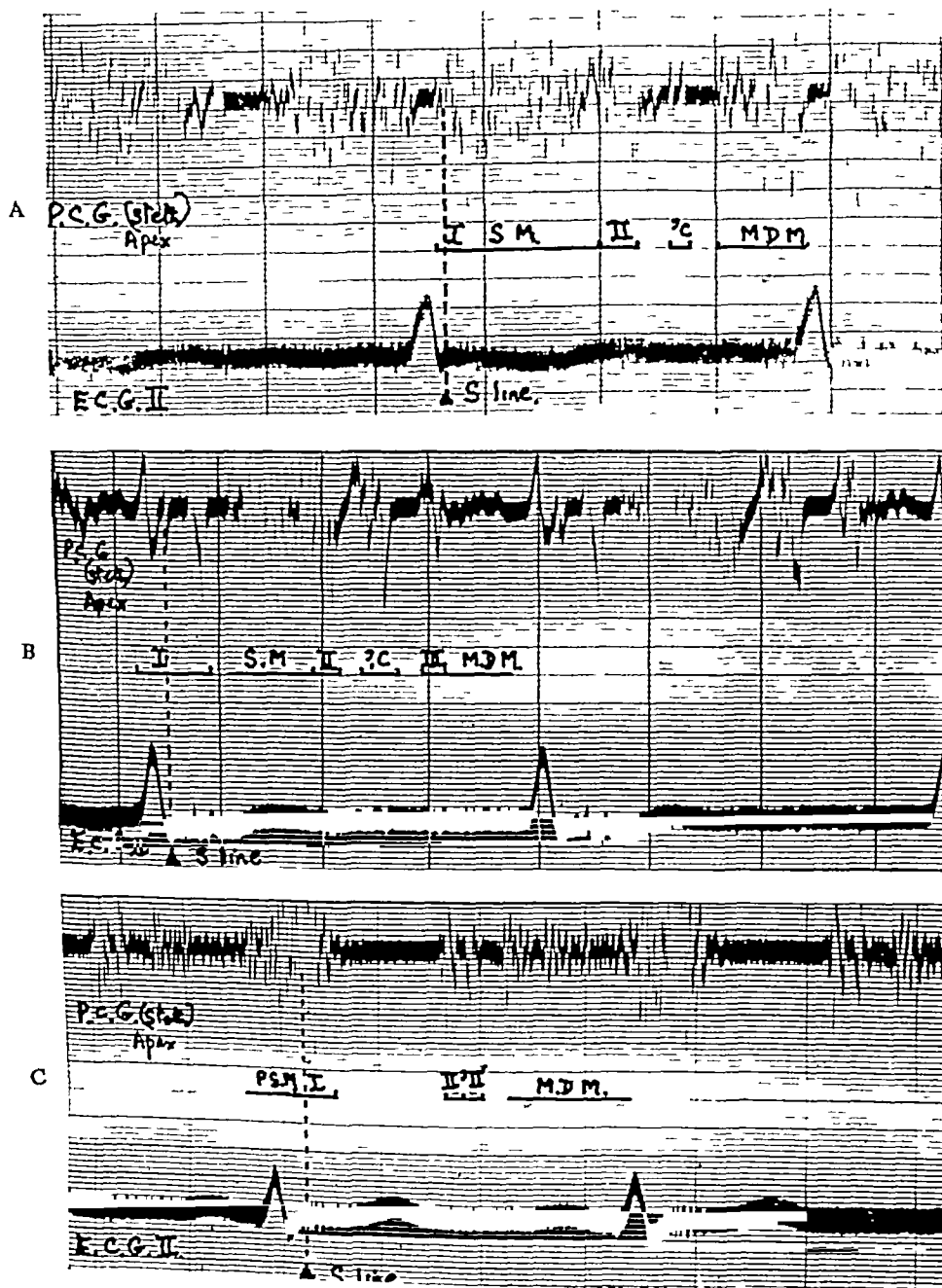


FIG 8—Mitral stenosis—apical recordings Three patients

(A) Systolic murmur (S M) starting at the S line

(B) Systolic murmur starting well after the S line

(C) No systolic murmur

A presystolic murmur (P S M) is only shown in (C), auricular fibrillation being present in (A) and (B)

The opening snap of the mitral valve is probably shown at (c) in (A) Mid-diastolic murmur (M D M)

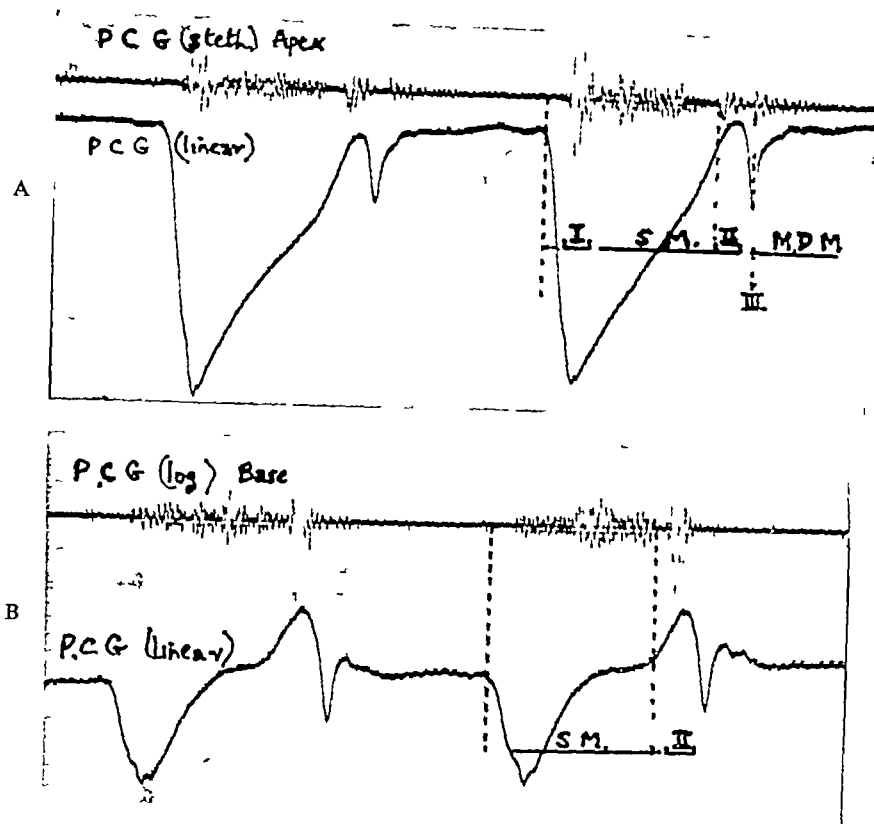


FIG 9—Mitral stenosis (A) Apical and (B) basal records of one patient. A loud pulmonary second sound was heard and the large amplitude of this sound in the logarithmic basal record is well seen.

cases there was no auscultatory or phonocardiographic evidence of mitral stenosis, although in 2 of these the apical records showed long aortic diastolic murmurs that might have obscured any mitral mid-diastolic murmurs present.

Of the remaining 10 cases in the series, none showed phonocardiographic evidence of mitral stenosis although 4 had long aortic diastolic murmurs recorded on the apical records, which might have obscured any mitral mid diastolic murmurs present.

One case with aortic incompetence and subacute bacterial endocarditis, but of uncertain aetiology, in which no evidence of mitral stenosis had been heard or recorded by phonocardiography, died Post-mortem, no enlargement of the left auricle was found, there was no evidence of rheumatic endocarditis or valvulitis, and microscopy did not elucidate the aetiological diagnosis.

In this series of cases of aortic incompetence no additional information to that found on clinical examination was given by phonocardiography.

UNSUSPECTED AORTIC DIASTOLIC MURMURS IN HYPERTENSION

Evans found aortic diastolic murmurs in 12 of a series of 43 hypertensive cases and in some cases of heart block. In order to test this finding a series of 20 cases of hypertension with loud or ringing aortic second sounds and diastolic blood pressures consistently over 100 mm was investigated. In no case was a diastolic murmur heard clinically. The ringing quality as heard by auscultation showed itself as a musical second sound of no greater width than normal on phonocardiographic records taken from the aortic area, and no diastolic murmur was detected after the second sound in any case (See Fig 11A and B).

Evans in interpreting his records has stated that "at the end of the T wave (lead II electrocardiogram) the second sound starts. Such a relationship has not been observed by other users of the phonocardiogram (Orías and Braun-Menéndez, 1939). It can be seen from Fig 7B and 10B that

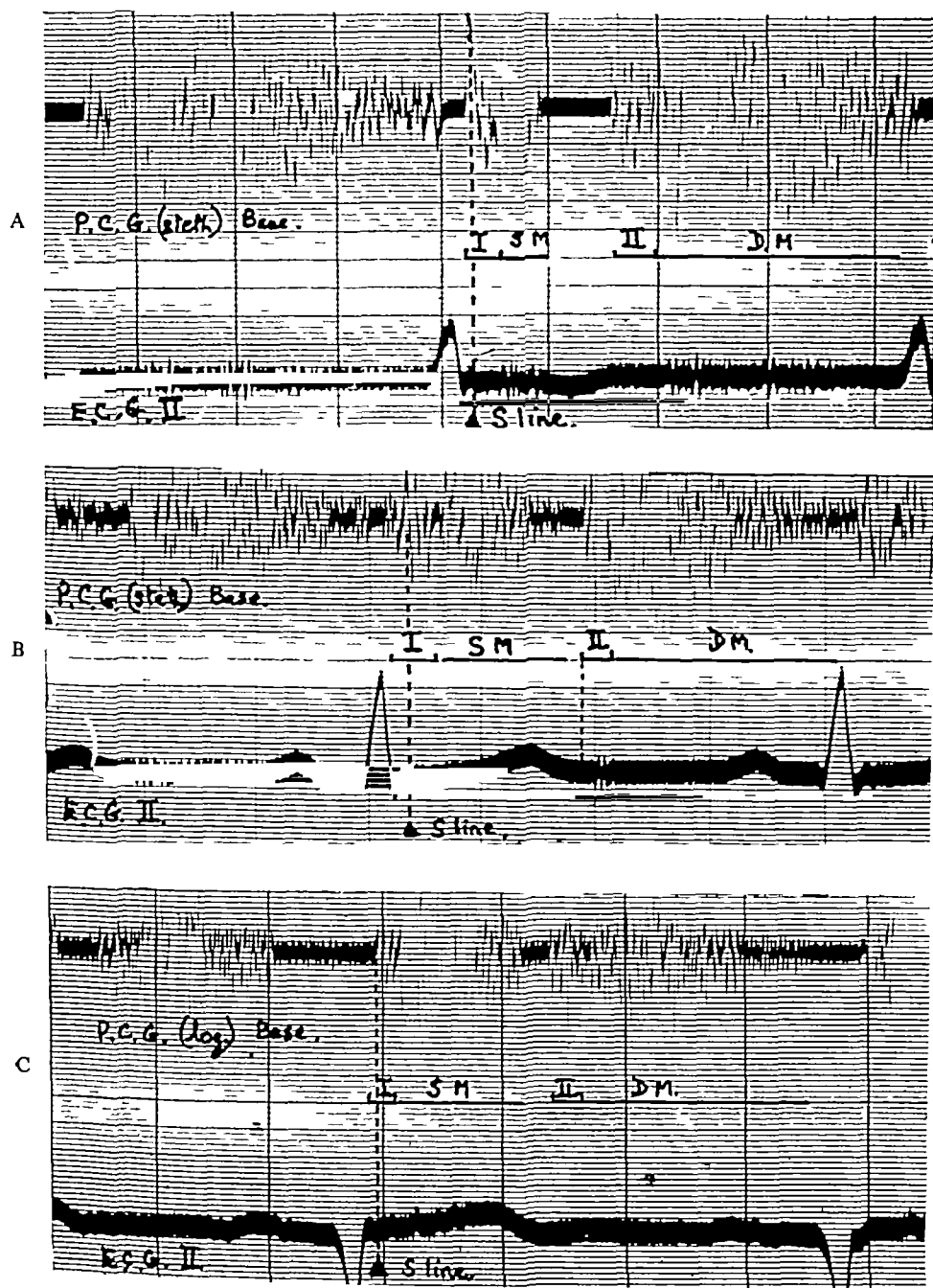


Fig 10—Aortic incompetence—basal recordings Three patients (A) and (B) are stethoscopic and (C) a logarithmic phonocardiogram

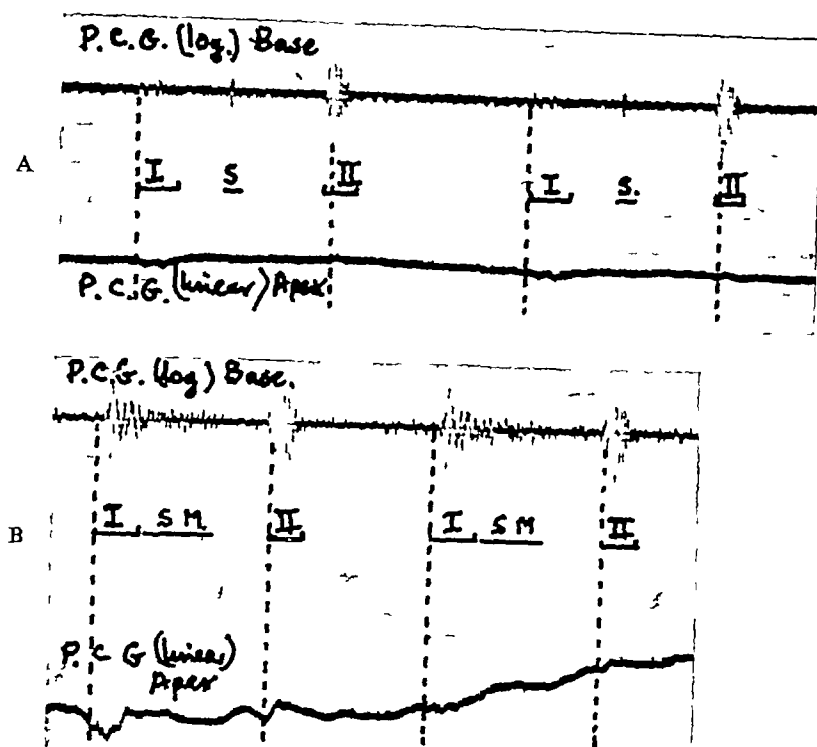


FIG 11 Hypertension—basal recordings Two patients Ringing aortic second sounds but no diastolic murmurs are present A systolic gallop sound (S) is present in (A)

the T wave bears a sufficiently variable relationship to the second sound to make it valueless as an indication of the onset of the second heart sound. It is believed that Evans' records of hypertension can bear a different interpretation if this is taken into account.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

An investigation was planned to test some of the phonocardiographic findings on heart murmurs announced by Evans (1947). In order to do this it became necessary to construct a new phonocardiograph whose characteristics are described in Part I.

No clear-cut distinction between the systolic murmurs found in valvular and congenital heart disease (57 cases) and those found in patients with no evidence of heart disease (27 cases) could be established by timing the onset of these murmurs against the S line of lead II of the electrocardiogram.

The systolic and presystolic murmurs in 30 cases of mitral stenosis were found to be clearly distinguishable from one another in timing and mean frequency, as they were on clinical auscultation.

No additional ætiological information to that collected clinically was found by a phonocardiographic examination of 21 cases of aortic incompetence.

In 20 cases of hypertension with a consistent diastolic blood pressure of over 100 mm none was found with an aortic diastolic murmur.

For phonocardiography to be a useful aid in clinical cardiology it is necessary to use an instrument whose characteristics are known and satisfy certain basic considerations. The electrocardiogram alone is an unsatisfactory reference tracing for studying heart murmurs by phonocardiography as there is no strict co-relation between the electrical and mechanical events of the cardiac cycle.

Although the phonocardiographic investigations recorded in this article are of a negative nature it is felt that phonocardiography can help the clinician in the diagnosis of heart murmurs, and work on these lines is progressing.

It has been a great pleasure to work in close co-operation with the Research Department of the Cam-

bridge Instrument Company, England, to whom my grateful thanks are offered

I wish to record my thanks to Professor Sir Lionel Whitby, Regius Professor of Physic at Cambridge, for much help and advice, to Dr Leslie B Cole of Addenbrooke's Hospital, Cambridge, for permission to use his

cases and for his enthusiasm and advice, and to Dr William Evans for his generous advice and help

This work was undertaken during the tenure of an Elmore research studentship at the University of Cambridge

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THE NATURAL HISTORY OF CORONARY DISEASE

A CLINICAL AND EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STUDY

BY

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Since William Heberden wrote his classic account of angina pectoris in 1768 and Edward Jenner, in a letter to him ten years later, suggested the association of the syndrome with disease of the coronary arteries, the subject has continued to claim the interest and attention of physicians in each succeeding generation. Taking this country alone and excluding living authorities, we have only to recall such names as Latham, Clifford Allbutt, Osler, Mackenzie, and Lewis. Symptomatology, both in their periods and since, has been the chief object of speculation and of study and although, with the aid of a more refined and intimate case-work, the subjective phenomena could even now be accorded a more detailed and accurate portraiture, the general clinical picture has been widely approved. The physiological researches of Lewis and his colleagues have advanced our understanding of the pain which is the central symptom. Morbid anatomy (especially in its bearing upon coronary occlusion as the cause of the status anginosus and succeeding cardiac failure), cardiography and radiography, have all made their contributions. Prognosis, with the assistance of technical aids and in experienced hands, has achieved, perhaps, a slightly better precision. Therapeutics, except insofar as a number of useless remedies have been discarded, have not registered any outstanding gains since Lauder Brunton's advocacy of the nitrites. The course of the disease in individuals and the effects of symptomatic treatment have, in brief, been fairly adequately covered.

The study of the disease in the community, on the other hand—its epidemiology and ætiology—have scarcely as yet received adequate consideration. Where individual studies leave gaps in our knowledge social and statistical enquiry may have a contribution to make.

When Heberden, who had no hospital associations, gave his paper to the Royal College of Physicians his experience of angina pectoris amounted to some

20 cases. When he included the description in his "Commentaries" in 1782, his experience had extended to 100 cases. Osler was admitted to the Fellowship of the Royal College of Physicians before he had seen a case in hospital or private practice. Mackenzie, with all his earlier experience in general practice and later as a leading consultant in cardiology, wrote (as late as 1923) that 380 patients had consulted him for angina pectoris. Today, as Cassidy (1946) remarks, "the modern cardiologist's name is legion" and "he counts his cases by thousands rather than hundreds." On both sides of the Atlantic the steadily rising incidence of coronary disease in recent decades has been noted, and it has been suspected that this trend, as indicated by mortality figures, is not wholly to be explained by such factors as the changing age-constitution of populations and by improved diagnosis and certification at death.

In connection with ætiology, speculations have been frequently advanced concerning the influence of the manifold stresses inherent in the conditions of life and work that our industrial civilization has imposed, and concerning the possible effects of nicotine. That hereditary predisposition plays some part has long been allowed. The assumption that angina pectoris and coronary occlusion are, in the main, expressive of nothing more than the arterial degenerations that accompany the inescapable process of ageing has not seemed satisfactory in the absence of a definition of ageing and in the case of a disease so common at the summit of a man's energies and achievement, and now so frequently recorded in the fifth and sixth decades (i.e. at ages 40-59), not infrequently in the fourth decade (30-39), and sometimes even earlier (20-29). Adherents of the so-called psychosomatic school of medicine—perhaps because their approach has been too predominantly psycho-analytical and because they have tended to see selected examples rather

than the general run of cases that pass through the hands of the family practitioner, the physician and the cardiologist—have almost certainly overstressed the influence of specific emotional conflict. Those cardiologists, on the other hand, who have doubted the ætiological contributions of mental stress and fatigue, with or without the addition of the more ordinary types of day-to-day anxiety, may be shown to have erred in another direction and to have attached altogether too little importance to the body-mind relationship and to the exacting circumstances of modern modes of life and work, which are in many respects as different as it is possible to imagine from those enjoyed or endured by our more slowly moving agricultural forebears.

THE SCOPE OF THE ENQUIRY

The present study falls into two parts. The first is based upon a statistical analysis of material to be found in the Reports of the Registrar-General (covering a recent twenty-five year period) in its bearing upon the deaths from coronary disease in England and Wales. This study has involved correlations with age, sex, social class, and occupation and geographical distributions, and has taken into particular account the secular trend of the disease during the period under review. The second is based upon an analysis of the clinical histories of a series of cases seen by one of us (J A R.) during a closely similar period of 23 years in the course of consulting practice.

In this manner, and by pooling our experience, it seemed to us that we could, in some measure, combine the advantages of two of the more important methods of socio-medical enquiry. *Statistical surveys* with correlations based upon official mortality returns rely for their validities upon the large numbers employed. While recognizing that the original data upon which the figures are based have been subscribed by a host of observers of varying reliability, we may yet accept that there is a sufficient smoothing out of error, by virtue of quantity, to compensate for qualitative inaccuracy. As regards the diagnosis of most cases of fatal angina pectoris and coronary occlusion in the period covered by the statistical survey, there should not have been great difficulties, so familiar had the symptom-picture of the first stage of the disease and, commonly, of the second stage, by then become. Nevertheless, steps were taken, as will be seen, to meet the criticism that the diagnosis of coronary thrombosis or occlusion has been made with increasing frequency throughout the period under review, and that certain vague nomenclatures, such as 'myocardial degeneration' (which have long been loosely used in death certi-

ficates) must now be giving place to more accurate classifications and thereby accounting in large part for the increased rates of mortality.

A *clinical survey*, even when conducted in retrospect—given that sufficient attention has been paid to possible personal, familial and habitual influences and to social and occupational factors and to the age at onset of the disease—has some, but only some, of the merits of a planned socio-medical enquiry. As a study in morbidity (and this is especially so in the case of diseases that run a long course) it may be considered as a useful supplement to mortality studies, for these can give no indication of age at the onset of the symptoms or of the conditions of life and work then obtaining, and they cannot, as a rule, attempt correlations with other ætiological factors than sex, social class, occupation, and geography. Nor can they throw light upon the various durations of the disease. As a rule, however, the numbers available for a personal clinical study of this kind are very small by comparison with those required by the statistical epidemiologist and often some necessary evidence is found to have been omitted or recorded in a form unsuitable for abstraction. Conclusions drawn from the physician's numerical analyses must consequently be cautious. The majority of cases in the clinical series were seen on one occasion only, some on two, three or more occasions, a few were seen so often and over such long periods of time as to allow of a growing intimacy both with the manifestations and varied course of the malady and with the affairs and personalities of its victims. An obvious disadvantage of the series relates to the fact that the cases were, inevitably, socially selected. An advantage, on the other hand, may be discerned in the fact that the information was collected by a single observer, and that his interest at the time was concentrated on the whole disease rather than upon any particular aspect of it.

THE STATISTICAL STUDY

In 1926 the reported deaths from angina pectoris in England and Wales totalled 1,880. In 1945 the number of deaths ascribed to disease of the coronary arteries and angina pectoris was 25,012, of which 16,514 occurred among males and 8,498 among females. During the intervening years the mortality from this cause of death has steadily increased and, in this connection, the comment by the Registrar-General (text for the years 1938–9) is of interest.

'The progressive increase since 1920 in the standardized mortality assigned to coronary disease and angina pectoris continued without a break in 1938 and 1939. In 1920 the rates were

32 per million for males and 13 for females, and by 1939 they were twelve or thirteen times as great (406 and 153 respectively). To what extent this increase is explained by changing fashion in death certification, leading to transfer of deaths from myocardial and cardiovascular degeneration groups, and to what extent it is real, is difficult to ascertain."

The present study, based on the statistics relating to the period 1921-45, was undertaken with the aim of attempting to shed some light on the increased mortality from coronary disease and to observe its social and geographical distribution in England and Wales and its sex relationship.

If the increment that has ostensibly occurred in the mortality has been obtained at the expense of the myocardial group, it is important that the composition of these groups should be uniform or stable during the period of observation. In the present study the following sub-headings and their attached numerical identification in the list of the International Classification of Causes of Death were adopted as suitable criteria.

	<i>Period</i>	<i>Sub-headings</i>
<i>Myocardial group</i>	1921-30	Fatty heart 90 (5)
	"	Other or unspecified myocardial diseases 90 (7)
	"	Arteriosclerosis without record of cerebral vascular lesion 91 (b) (2)
	1931-9	Myocardial degeneration 93 (b)
	"	Myocarditis not distinguished as acute or chronic 93 (c)
	"	Arteriosclerosis without record of cerebral vascular lesion 97 (3)
<i>Coronary disease</i>	1940-5	Myocardial degeneration, infarction, sclerosis and other chronic myocarditis 93 (c)
	"	Myocarditis not distinguished as acute or chronic 93 (d)
	1921-30	Angina pectoris 89
	1931-9 and 1940-5	Diseases of the coronary arteries, angina pectoris 94

Secular Trend

In discussing the secular trend of the mortality from any disease or disease-groups over a long series of years, it is essential to be mindful of difficulties that do arise. These may be listed as follows:

- Changing fashion in diagnosis
- Changes in the International Classification of Causes of Death
- The abandonment by the Registrar-General of a priority classification and his acceptance of the

sequence as stated by the doctor when more than one cause of death is mentioned on the death certificate.

While allowance has been made by the Registrar-General for the influence of (b) and (c) in statistics published for years since 1931, the impact of (a) remains an unknown quantity. There also exists another influential factor in the trend of the all ages mortality, namely the effect of change in the age composition of the population. The extent to which this has occurred, even during the relatively short period under review, is manifest in the following figures indicating the proportional age distribution of the population in 1921 and 1945.

TABLE I
CHANGING AGE OF POPULATION

Year	Age groups				All ages
	0-14	15-44	45-64	65+	
1921 pop	29	47	18	6	100
1945 "	21	46	23	10	100

The proportion of the population in the age group 45-64 years increased by nearly 30 per cent, and at age 65+ by nearly 70 per cent, during this time interval of 25 years. It is possible to make allowance for the influence of the ageing factor on the death-rate by calculating the comparative mortality index. This index, which was devised by Dr Percy Stocks, "expresses each cause of mortality of each year as a ratio of that of 1938 adopted as the base after adjustment for age differences in the population exposed to risk."

Since the diseases that are being studied occur in adult life, and predominantly after the age of 30, the index, in the present instance, was calculated for age 35 years and upwards. The results for the period 1921 to 1939 for males and females are shown in Fig. 1 and 2, to which was added, as a matter of interest, the curve of the mortality from arteriosclerosis with a record of cerebral vascular lesion.

The upward direction of each of the curves is quite a definite feature of the graphs, but, for both sexes, the gradient is steepest for coronary disease. If three points of time be taken—1921, 1931, and 1939—the comparative mortality index for coronary disease for males was 0.10, 0.47 and 1.13, the corresponding values for females were 0.09, 0.42 and 1.08. The graphs also reveal

- (1) The very close alignment between the trend of the mortality from the myocardial group and arteriosclerosis, particularly for females.

COMPARATIVE MORTALITY INDEX AT AGE 35+ FOR MALES

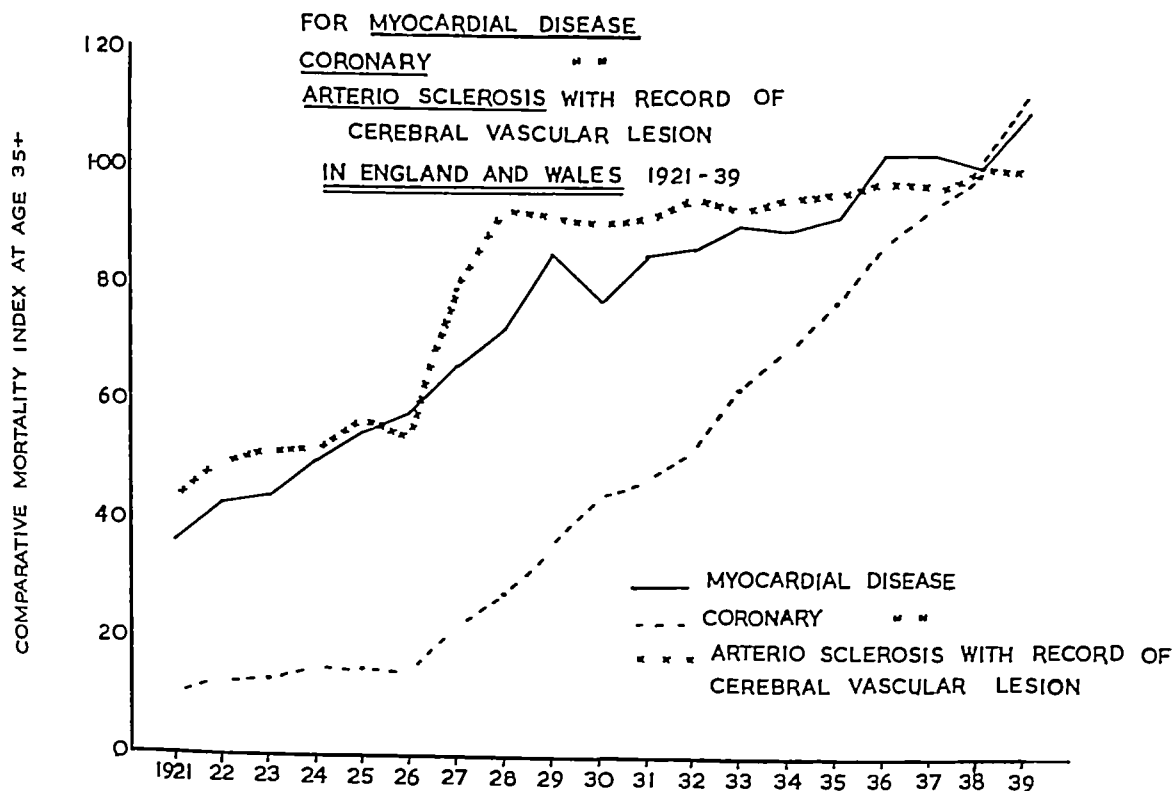


Fig 1—Comparative mortality index at age 35+ for males for myocardial disease, coronary disease, and arterio-sclerosis with record of cerebral vascular lesion, in England and Wales 1921-39

(2) The increment in the death-rate from arterio-sclerosis with a record of cerebral vascular lesion between 1926 and 1928, an increase so great and so abrupt as to suggest that it indicates a change in "book-keeping" rather than anything specific in the disease itself

Since the progressive increase in each of the three causes of death is evident, it is pardonable to make a digression here to ascertain if such increment has been due to a transference of deaths from other forms of circulatory disease. On this particular issue the following statistics, published by the Registrar-General in the text of the report for the years 1938-9, are instructive. As regards the male mortality, which is the more important, the increment in the death-rates at ages when circulatory disease is classified into two groups, A and B, was as shown in Table II

The figures suggest that some transference may have occurred from B to A, but certainly not sufficient to account for the vast increase observable in the latter. To quote the Registrar-General "Such

TABLE II
INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (—) IN RATES PER
MILLION FROM 1921-30 TO 1939

Age group	(A) Coronary Myocardial Arteriosclerosis Senility	(B) Valvular and "other heart" disease
	Males	Males
45—	+581	—284
50—	+1377	—369
55—	+2420	—737
60—	+4110	—1477
65—	+6114	—2806
70—	+9674	—3994
75+	+20856	—5861

transfer could, however, account for only a fraction of the increase registered amongst males for degenerative diseases affecting the myocardium and vascular system." The position would thus seem

COMPARATIVE MORTALITY INDEX AT AGE 35+ FOR FEMALES FOR

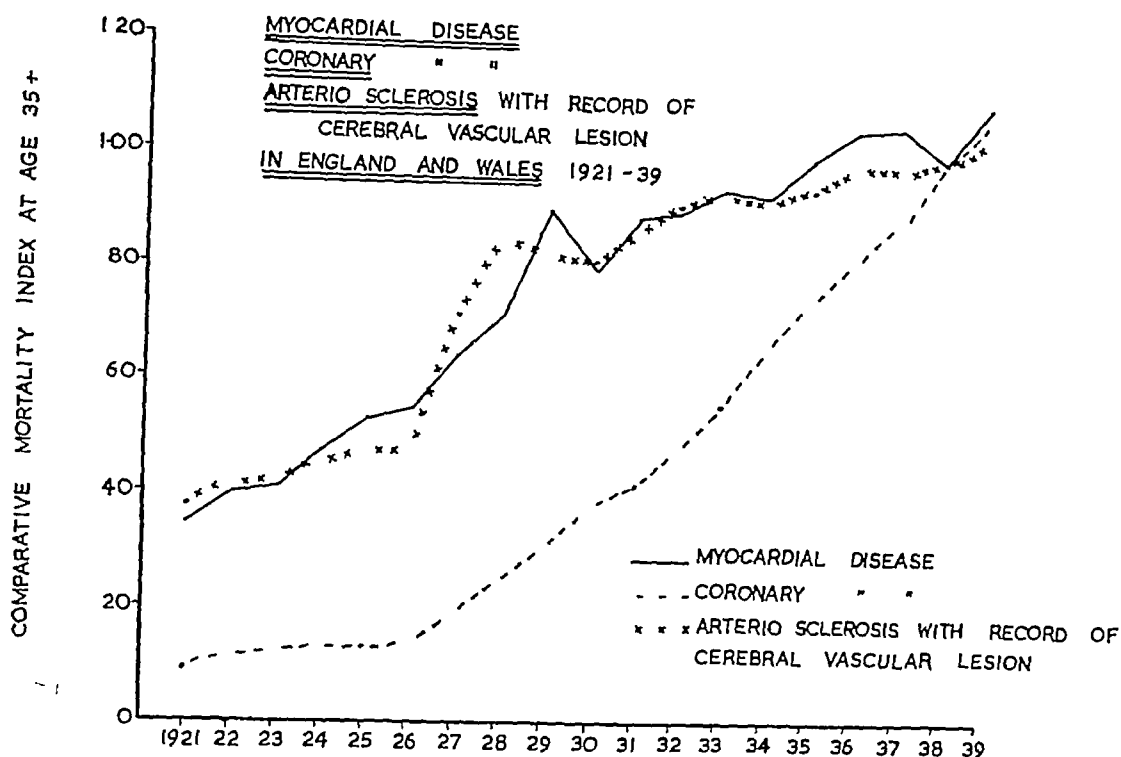


FIG 2—Comparative mortality index at age 35+ for females for myocardial disease coronary disease and arteriosclerosis with record of cerebral vascular lesion, in England and Wales 1921-39

to be that, up to 1939, coronary and myocardial disease were each increasing but not doing so mainly at the expense of the residual circulatory forms, and that the rate of increase was much greater in respect of the mortality from coronary disease. But the similarity in the trend of the respective mortality of the two disease-groups ended in 1939 because the subsequent statistical experience, especially since 1941, has been entirely different. The comparative mortality index for coronary disease in males in 1945, was 1.43, or 43 per cent greater than the death rate in 1938, whereas the myocardial index was 0.76, or 24 per cent in defect of the 1938 standard. Similarly for females, the 1945 index for coronary mortality was 1.38, or 38 per cent greater than that in 1938, but the myocardial ratio was 0.80, or 20 per cent in defect. It would thus seem that there has been either (a) a real decrease in myocardial mortality, or (b) a change in certification, observable since 1940, and that some deaths, previously attributed to myocardial causes, are now ascribed to one or other of the circulatory forms. The divergence in point

of time is too abrupt and sudden to indicate (a), and (b) would therefore offer the more sensible explanation.

Mortality According to Age

(i) *Coronary disease* While a picture of mortality based on a rate or ratio for combined ages even though such values be adjusted for effects of ageing of the population, is informative, it nevertheless lacks the clarification that a study of age specific rates of mortality can afford. For this reason the average annual death-rates in age groups from coronary disease in the periods 1921-30, 1931-39 and 1940-45 (excluding 1944), and the percentage increments relative to the first epoch, are given in Table III. The death rates at ages in the periods 1921-30 and 1931-39 were adjusted (by the application of conversion ratios) so as to make them comparable with those based on the revised classification that became operative in and after 1940. In the interpretation of the results it is essential to bear in mind that the time intervals are different,

TABLE III, LONDON, M.C.P.D.

THE DEATH RATES PER MILLION OF POPULATION IN AGE GROUPS FOR CORONARY DISEASE IN ENGLAND AND WALES FOR CERTAIN PERIODS

Coronary Disease

Age group	Males						Females					
	Period			Percentage compared with 1921-30			Period			Percentage compared with 1921-30		
	1921-30	1931-9	1940-5	1921-30	1931-9	1940-5	1921-30	1931-9	1940-5	1921-30	1931-9	1940-5
35—	16	46	69	100	288	431	4	12	16	100	300	400
40—	37	124	206	100	335	557	8	24	36	100	300	450
45—	75	282	466	100	376	621	16	53	86	100	331	538
50—	147	576	916	100	392	623	34	117	186	100	344	547
55—	266	963	1571	100	362	591	65	243	397	100	374	611
60—	439	1523	2380	100	347	542	136	510	771	100	375	567
65—	653	2247	3417	100	344	523	242	897	1446	100	371	598
70—	829	3067	4403	100	370	531	339	1338	2149	100	395	634
75+	913	3735	5582	100	409	611	437	1960	3019	100	449	691

being approximately ten years between the first and second epoch and approximately seven years between the second and third. Broadly speaking the statistical pattern for both sexes is similar. Between age 40 and 75 years there was an increment of approximately 250 per cent in the mortality in each of the intervening age groups in 1931-9 as compared with 1921-30. The increase continued and in 1941-5 ultimately amounted to approximately 450 per cent. The statistics also indicate that in middle age, 40-55 years, the male death-rate was increasing more rapidly than that for females, whereas in old age the position was reversed. Since, on the whole, there has been a fairly uniform increase in the mortality throughout life, the increment which has occurred in middle age being not very dissimilar from that for older people, it is extremely unlikely that transference of deaths from "old age" affords an adequate explanation of the increased mortality from coronary disease.

(ii) *Myocardial disease* The relevant statistics for myocardial disease are stated in Table IV. Here again there is a close agreement in the statistical experience of the two sexes. Between age 40 and 65 the rates increased approximately 50 per cent for both males and females in 1931-9 as compared with those in the initial period, subsequently, they decreased, with the result that in 1940-5 the ultimate excess, except at age 75+, was of the order of 30 per cent for males and 20 per cent for females.

Transference of Myocardial Deaths

Attention has been previously drawn to the decline in the comparative mortality index, at age 35 years and upwards, for myocardial disease since

1941. It would appear from Table IV that each age was affected, as the death-rate in every age group in the period 1940-5 is lower than the corresponding value in 1931-9. This fact would seemingly indicate that some deaths previously certified as due to this cause are now ascribed to one or other of the forms of circulatory disease. The relevant questions then arise, is it possible

(1) To estimate the extent of this transposition?

(2) To ascertain if the coronary disease mortality has been credited with the transfer?

The clinical features of coronary thrombosis were first clearly presented in England by McNee (1925). A lapse of fifteen years before the acceptance of a more precise classification of causes of cardiac deaths became general would not be remarkable. The following procedure was adopted to provide an answer for which no exact precision is claimed, but only a fair degree of approximation. It was assumed that the age-specific death-rates for both myocardial and coronary disease increased linearly during the period 1931-9, which means that the equation of a straight line describes their course during the years in question. The constants obtained from these linear equations for each age group were utilized to forecast the expected age-specific death-rates in 1945. Admittedly, extrapolates obtained from such limited experience, and for so relatively wide an interval of time, are not entirely satisfactory. Nevertheless, the procedure offers the only adequate method of approach. The comparison of the actual and predicted rates of mortality at ages (adjusted for change in classification) for each of the two causes of death is made

TABLE IV
THE DEATH-RATES PER MILLION OF POPULATION IN AGE GROUPS FOR MYOCARDIAL DISEASE IN ENGLAND
AND WALES FOR CERTAIN EPOCHS
Myocardial Disease

Age group	Males						Females					
	Period			Percentage compared with 1921-30			Period			Percentage compared with 1921-30		
	1921-30	1931-9	1940-5	1921-30	1931-9	1940-5	1921-30	1931-9	1940-5	1921-30	1931-9	1940-5
35-	55	97	70	100	176	127	48	101	65	100	210	135
40-	116	214	152	100	185	131	91	184	122	100	202	134
45-	322	462	343	100	143	107	242	365	269	100	151	111
50-	628	1003	796	100	160	127	473	706	539	100	149	114
55-	1254	1932	1725	100	154	137	917	1376	1091	100	150	119
60-	2617	3935	3471	100	150	133	1928	2928	2371	100	152	123
65-	5392	7725	7027	100	143	131	3880	6008	5067	100	155	131
70-	10,213	15,904	13,922	100	156	136	7672	12,520	11,144	100	163	145
75+	23,777	40,988	39,153	100	172	165	20,508	36,382	35,099	100	177	171

in Table V For coronary disease it will be seen that, for each age group, with one single exception (45-50 for males), the expected death-rate is greater than the actual death-rate For males, apart from age 70+, the excess at the other ages is of the order of 10 per cent For females the difference is somewhat greater Hence it would appear that the mortality from coronary disease is now increasing less rapidly than in the period before the war As

was to be expected from the previous evidence, the gulf between the actual and predicted death rates in 1945 for myocardial disease is not only much wider but, as will be noted, the disparity is correlated with age for both sexes Up to age 55 the expected death-rate for males exceeds the actual by nearly 100 per cent The difference subsequently declines and after age 60 it amounts to approximately 50 per cent For females the difference is greatest at

TABLE V
THE ACTUAL AND EXPECTED DEATH-RATE PER MILLION OF POPULATION IN AGE GROUPS FROM CORONARY
AND MYOCARDIAL DISEASE IN ENGLAND AND WALES IN 1945
Coronary Disease

Age group	Males		
	Actual death rate	Expected death rate	Difference as percent age of actual death rate
45-	542	542	0
50-	1045	1168	-12
55-	1838	2008	-9
60-	2924	3140	-7
65-	4066	4313	-6
70-	5256	6126	-17
75+	6477	7723	-19
	Females		
	Actual death rate	Expected death rate	Difference as percent age of actual death rate
45-	98	108	-10
50-	234	237	-1
55-	447	517	-16
60-	893	1039	-16
65-	1680	1850	-10
70-	2600	2787	-7
75+	3392	4390	-29

Myocardial Disease		
Males		
Actual death rate	Expected death rate	Difference as percent age of actual death rate
280	547	-95
659	1353	-105
1424	2666	-87
3065	5483	-79
6377	9424	-48
12,812	19,430	-52
36,250	54,681	-51
Females		
197	421	-114
461	838	-82
947	1524	-61
2097	3378	-61
4542	7024	-55
10,445	15,262	-46
33,517	47,289	-41

TABLE VI

THE ACTUAL AND POTENTIAL "DEATHS PER MILLION OF POPULATION IN AGE GROUPS IN 1945 FROM CORONARY DISEASE ASSUMING THE MORTALITY HAS BEEN INCREASED BY TRANSFER FROM THE MYOCARDIAL GROUP

Age group	Potential death rate=expected coronary death-rate plus difference between actual and expected myocardial death rate			
	Males		Females	
	Actual death rate	Potential death rate	Actual death rate	Potential death-rate
45—	542	542+ 267= 809	98	108— 224= 332
50—	1045	1168+ 694= 1862	234	237+ 377= 614
55—	1838	2008+ 1242= 3250	447	517— 577= 1094
60—	2924	3140+ 2418= 5558	893	1039+ 1282= 2321
65—	4066	4313+ 3047= 7360	1680	1850+ 2482= 4332
70—	5256	6126+ 6618=12,744	2600	2787— 4817= 7604
75+	6477	7723+18,431=26,154	3392	4390+13,772=18,162

45–50 years—114 per cent—but no undue importance may be given to this value because the mortality at this particular age is low. At the other ages the decline approximates to that for the male sex, with the result that in old age the expected death-rate is roughly 45 per cent in excess of the actual.

Since the "calculated" age-specific death-rates from coronary disease in 1945 are greater than the actual, it would suggest either

(1) that there has been little or no transference from the myocardial group to this category,

or

(2) that coronary disease in itself has decreased and that the high mortality now observable is actually due to a transfer of myocardial deaths.

Hence it is of interest to assess what would have been the position if the transposition had occurred. The most likely magnitude of the transfer would have been the excess of the expected over the actual

death-rates from myocardial causes. The addition of this difference to the expected coronary death-rate would yield what we have called the "potential death-rate" from coronary disease in 1945. The result shown in Table VI indicates that if such a change or transfer occurred the coronary death-rate up to age 75 years for males would be doubled and, beyond that age, would be four times its existing size. The alteration in the female mortality would have been even greater.

Sex Ratio

Although the increment in the mortality from coronary disease has not been dissimilar for the two sexes, the dominance of the male mortality over that for females is excessive, as will be seen in Table VII which shows the male–female sex ratio at the various age groups and, in addition, similar

TABLE VII

SHOWING THE SEX RATIO $\left(\frac{M}{F}\right)$ AT AGE GROUPS FOR CORONARY AND MYOCARDIAL MORTALITY IN ENGLAND AND WALES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS

Coronary Disease				Myocardial Disease		
Age group	1921–30	1931–9	1940–3	1921–30	1931–9	1940–3
35	4.0	3.8	4.3	1.15	0.96	1.08
40	4.6	5.2	5.7	1.27	1.16	1.25
45	4.7	5.3	5.4	1.33	1.27	1.28
50	4.3	4.9	4.9	1.33	1.42	1.48
55	4.1	4.0	4.0	1.37	1.40	1.58
60	3.2	3.0	3.1	1.36	1.34	1.46
65	2.7	2.5	2.4	1.39	1.29	1.39
70	2.4	2.3	2.0	1.33	1.27	1.25
75+	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.16	1.13	1.12

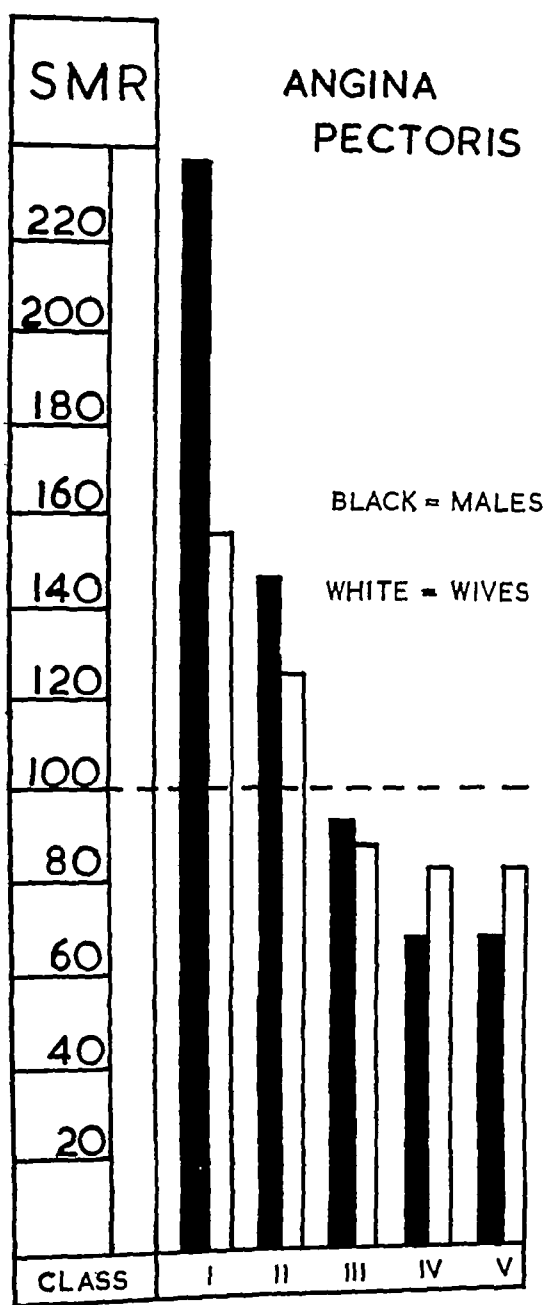


FIG 3—Standard mortality ratio from angina pectoris for men divided according to their social class as in the Registrar General's reports, and for wives

values for the myocardial diseases. For the latter the male excess, after age 45, is of the order of 30 per cent, with no definite age association indicated in any of the three time periods. On the other hand, for coronary disease there is a decided relationship with age, observable in each of the three epochs. For example in 1940-5 the male death rate at age 40-50 was more than 5 times greater than for females, at 55-60 the ratio drops to 4.0 and at 75+ it is less than 2.

This negative correlation of the sex ratio for coronary disease with age and the relative absence of any association in the case of myocardial disease suggests the impact of some factor detrimental to males in the causation of coronary disease. The most obvious sex discriminant is an occupational influence and, in this respect, the statistics available in the Registrar-General's Occupational Supplement for 1930-2 are instructive. In this very interesting and valuable report, the Registrar General published the mortality from various diseases according to five social classes. The constitution of these social classes has so often been described that it is unnecessary at this stage to enlarge on their structure. It is sufficient to state that Class I is largely composed of professional workers, Class III represents skilled artisans and Class V unskilled workers—the two residual groups being intermediate to the contiguous grades. The correlation between the mortality from angina pectoris and social level is depicted in Fig 3 in which it will be seen that, for both men and wives the decrease in mortality with descent in the social grading is clearly indicated. For males in Class I the mortality is 137 per cent in excess of the average for all males aged 20-65 years. It is 4 per cent in defect for skilled workers, and for unskilled workers the mortality is 33 per cent below the expected or normal value. If the occupations comprising the various social orders are studied separately the comparison is even more strikingly depicted, as will be seen from the mortality ratios in four occupations showing the highest and lowest values respectively (Table VIII).

These results clearly indicate the influence of type of work on the liability to death from coronary disease, since the four occupations having the highest ratios are those requiring not only a high degree of mental activity but also involve considerable anxiety and stress in their performance. For workers at the other end of the scale life is from the point of view of mental activity, relatively less exacting and it would appear that their risk of dying from coronary disease is much more remote.

Realizing then that social or occupational status is a correlate of the mortality from coronary disease, it was of interest to ascertain if men and wives within

TABLE VIII

MALE OCCUPATIONS OF HIGHEST AND LOWEST MORTALITY FROM CORONARY DISEASE

Highest		Lowest	
	S M R		S M R
Physicians surgeons	368	Coal miners below ground, engaged in other work	40
Proprietors of wholesale business	235	Stone miners and quarriers	38
Judges, barristers, solicitors	227	Agricultural and gardeners labourers	32
Clergymen of Anglican Church	218	Workers in chemical processes	20

All males=100

(The standardized mortality ratio (S M R) is the percentage ratio of the deaths actually registered in an occupation to those which would be expected to occur if the workers at age periods in that occupation experienced the age specific death rates for all males)

the same social pattern were equally at risk. The sex ratios of their mortality in three age groups for angina pectoris and myocardial disease were evaluated and the results are stated in Table IX. For myocardial disease the variation in the size of the ratio, either according to social gradient or age, is of a slight order, whereas for angina pectoris the position is different, age is a factor, but social class more so. The importance of the latter is most obvious in the age period 45-55 in Social Class I, in which the male death-rate is almost ten times greater than that for wives, for skilled workers (Class III) the sex ratio is five, and it drops to 3 in the lowest social class. Why, it may be asked, is the ratio dominantly male in Social Class I at age 45-55? The most likely answer would seem to be

that the workers included therein at this age period are those who have usually reached the peak of their professional careers and are exposed to the maximal strain associated with their particular responsibilities. Mentally, their tempo of life is fast and, as the sex ratio indicates, they are not "masters of their fate"

Cassidy, in his Harveian Oration (*loc cit*), asks the following question "Is it possible that in the remarkable sex-incidence of coronary disease we may find some clue to aetiology? Can it be that masculinity predisposes one to coronary disease, and that femininity safeguards from it—that perhaps cholesterol metabolism is vitiated by maleness?" In this connection, it would seem important not to overlook the question of occupational influence and the fact that the mortality ratio of male professional workers to male manual workers is far higher than that of men to women

Geographical Distribution

Finally, in this epidemiological survey it was of interest to depict the geographical distribution of the mortality from coronary disease throughout the country. A direct approach here is not possible because, although the Registrar-General has published, since 1940, the number of deaths from coronary disease in the several areas of the country, the age and sex composition of the population exposed to risk in these areas is unknown. In the present instance, an attempt was made to override this difficulty by comparing, for the twelve major geographical regions, the actual and the expected number of coronary deaths—the latter being estimated from proportional mortality ratios. The procedure of estimation was as follows. The proportion which the coronary deaths in age groups in England and Wales bear to the deaths from all causes at the corresponding ages was estimated for

TABLE IX

SHOWING THE SEX RATIO ($\frac{M}{F}$) OF THE MORTALITY FROM ANGINA PECTORIS AND MYOCARDIAL DISEASE ACCORDING TO SOCIAL CLASS IN ENGLAND AND WALES IN 1930-2

Angina Pectoris				Myocardial Disease			
Age group	Social Class			Social Class			
	I	III	V	I	III	V	
45-55	9.9	5.3	3.3	2.2	1.3	1.4	
55-65	4.6	3.4	2.4	1.9	1.3	1.2	
65-70	5.0	2.4	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.4	

the triennium 1941-3 and the results are shown in Table X

TABLE X

RATIO OF CORONARY DEATHS PER 1000 TO THOSE FROM ALL CAUSES AT SPECIFIC AGE PERIODS

Age group Years	Male	Female
-40	2.6	1.0
40-	35.0	9.1
45-	55.0	14.4
50-	71.5	21.8
55-	79.1	33.4
60-	78.4	41.2
65-	74.2	48.0
70-	70.0	41.3
75-	47.6	33.1
80+	29.0	20.6

These percentage ratios were accepted as "standard ratios" and applied to the All Causes deaths at the corresponding ages in each areal unit. On this basis the expected number of coronary deaths in each of the twelve major geographical regions of the country was obtained and then compared with the actual number of recorded coronary deaths in the three-year period 1941-3. Proportional mortality, which is the relationship of two variables, when used irrespective of age and time for comparative purpose, has recognized limitations. Possible allowance has been made for these factors in the present instance, but it is nevertheless advisable to test the validity of the adopted procedure.

There being no published statistics in areal units for coronary deaths prior to 1940 a test was made using nephritis as a criterion. The expected deaths from this disease for the two years 1931-2 were estimated in two ways:

(a) By the method of proportional mortality as previously described for coronary disease, allowance being made for the urban and rural character of the region.

(b) By indirect standardization, i.e. applying death-rates at ages from nephritis in the County Boroughs, Urban and Rural Districts in England and Wales to the populations exposed to risk in the specific areal or regional unit.

The expected number of deaths obtained on each of the two hypotheses were then related to those actually recorded. The test was made on the data for Warwickshire which contains the most populous County Borough—Birmingham—in England and Wales. The results are shown in Table XI. As will be noted the ratios obtained by the two different methods, are in very close accord. Hence it would seem that by using proportional mortality

TABLE XI
RATIO OF ACTUAL TO EXPECTED DEATHS FROM NEPHRITIS ESTIMATED IN TWO WAYS

Birmingham		Warwickshire			
C B		Urban		Rural	
M	F	M	F	M	F
(a) 82	67	90	110	69	94
(b) 81	65	97	112	64	84

in the manner indicated, it is possible to estimate, with some degree of accuracy, the number of deaths from coronary disease that might be legitimately expected to occur in each of the twelve major divisions of the country.

The ratios of the actual and expected number of coronary deaths for males and females during the triennium 1941-3 have been worked out for these areas, both for males and females, there is a definite zoning of the mortality. Greater London has an excess of 21 per cent above the average or expected number for males, next in sequence is the group of residual South-Eastern Counties with an excess of 11 per cent, followed by North I where the actual deaths exceed the expected by 3 per cent. There is a large belt composed of North IV, Midlands I and II and Wales I in which the mortality is approximately 15 per cent below the average. The divergence between the results in Wales is noteworthy. In Wales I (South Wales) the recorded deaths are 15 per cent in defect of the expected number, whereas in Wales II (North Wales) the difference is one of 3 per cent.

The ratios for females are closely correlated with those for males, areas with high or low male mortality being also those in which the female deaths are also either in excess or defect of the expected value. The reason for these apparent geographical disparities in the size of the ratios is not readily apparent. Do they represent a true accounting or are they the resultant effect of differences in the social structure of the populations living in the different area units? It is not possible to give a definite answer owing to lack of appropriate data and it is obvious from previous evidence, that social stratification is an influential factor in determining the mortality from coronary disease.

THE CLINICAL STUDY

General observations. The period covered in this part of the enquiry is approximately 23 years (1920-42), but the majority of the cases were seen

during a 15-year period (between 1925-39) The experience was that of a general medical consulting practice The patients included in the series would thus represent, in the main, Social Classes I and II of the Registrar-General's classification by occupations, with a few from Social Class III After excluding dubious cases the notes of 243 cases remained, these were primarily classified as *angina pectoris* (144 cases) or as *coronary thrombosis* (99 cases) Only 2 cases were accepted in which a history of characteristic pain was lacking No cases of *angina vasomotoria* or of so-called "hypertensive failure" (Clifford Allbutt's "cardiac defeat") were included, although high blood pressures must have added a load to hearts embarrassed by coronary disease in a number of cases No cases were included of aortic valvular disease or aneurysm or of pernicious anæmia This total of 243 cases of coronary disease represents approximately 1.7 per cent of all new private cases seen in consultation during this period As no special reasons obtained for regarding the writer (J A R.) as a cardiologist, cases of heart disease should not have been referred for an opinion in any undue proportion It is not known how the proportion would compare with that discoverable in family practices of varying type or locality

Of the 243 cases in the series 164 were males and 79 females, giving an approximate ratio of M2 : F1 This corresponds closely with the sex ratio revealed by the All Ages Deaths from coronary disease in 1945 Cassidy (*loc cit*), in a more predominantly cardiological practice and in a much larger series of cases of coronary disease, records a ratio of M3.5 : F1 Of the 164 male cases, 97 (60%) were primarily classified as *angina pectoris* and 67 (40%) as *coronary thrombosis* Of the 79 female cases, 47 (60%) were primarily classified as *angina pectoris* and 32 (40%) as *coronary thrombosis* The relative incidence of effort angina and of coronary thrombosis was thus similar in the two sexes On re perusing the case-histories, however, it was found that *angina pectoris* (effort angina) had been preceded by an earlier account of a severe prolonged attack of pain, often lasting two hours or more (but without the more catastrophic picture of a severe coronary lesion) in an appreciable proportion of the cases While most cases of effort angina probably start as such and may be assumed to be due to coronary sclerosis without occlusion, or even to coronary spasm (in association, commonly, with one or more of the general manifestations of hyperpiesia), it would seem probable that small coronary occlusions (sclerotic or thrombotic), often unrecognized at the time, may not infrequently initiate the liability to effort angina

In the 144 cases (both sexes), primarily classified as *angina pectoris*, there was a previous history of a prolonged attack of pain—not necessarily associated with effort—in 15 (10%) In 99 cases (both sexes), primarily classified as *coronary thrombosis*, there was a preceding history of effort angina in 28 (28%) Subsequent histories of the surviving cases of coronary thrombosis were not available in a sufficient number to allow of an estimate of the frequency with which this accident is followed by effort angina It is well recognized that in some cases recovery is so far complete as to be followed by neither pain nor dyspnoea on exertion, sometimes for long periods The above observations do little more than lend support to the common clinical and pathological opinion that effort angina and the status anginosus of coronary occlusion are expressions only of different stages or accidents in the same disease They also suggest that the course and behaviour of the disease in the two sexes is similar, although its frequency is greater in men It is clear that the two clinical syndromes, expressing coronary sclerosis and sclerotic or thrombotic occlusion respectively, can legitimately be discussed together in any consideration of epidemiology or of possible ætiological factors

Age of Onset

Epidemiological studies of chronic types of disease based upon mortality figures are, as has been indicated, in a measure unsatisfactory in that they can give no account of the age of onset or of the occupation or other circumstances obtaining at the time of inception of the disease The occupation recorded in a certificate is the last one preceding death In 149 male cases and 69 female cases in this series it was possible to deduce, from the age of the patient noted at the time of the first examination and from the historical notes, the age at onset with a margin of error probably not exceeding one year.

TABLE XII

Age at onset	AGE OF ONSET OF CORONARY DISEASE		Age distribution at onset (females) in 69 cases
	Males (youngest)	Females (youngest)	
	34 (oldest) 90	35 (oldest) 83	
	Age distribution at onset (males) in 149 cases		
Under 36	2	1	
36-40	2	0	
41-45	12	1	
46-50	23	7	
51-55	21	5	
56-60	23	12	
61-65	28	19	
Over 65	38	24	

In 26 per cent of the male cases and 13 per cent of the female cases the age of onset was 50 years or less, in 74 per cent of the male and 87 per cent of the female cases the age of onset was over 50 years. The numbers are small but they suggest that the factors accounting for male preponderance are more operative in the earlier or middle than in the later period of adult life. This assumption is supported by the evidence that in England and Wales in 1946 the deaths from coronary disease amongst males aged 30-50 years constituted 6 per cent of the deaths from all causes in this age group, whereas the proportion for females was only 1.4 per cent. At age 50 years and upwards the corresponding values for males and females were 9 and 5 per cent respectively. Newman (1946) has reported on 50 young cases of coronary occlusion from the British armed forces which came under observation during the second world war. Of these, 39 were fatal (33 dying suddenly), and the diagnosis was established at necropsy. Coronary occlusion without thrombosis was recorded in 29 of the cases, and with thrombosis in 10. The youngest case was aged twenty and no less than 22 were within the age group 20-29. Of the 50 cases, 45 had been graded 'fit' or 'I' on joining the Service. There was only one female case in the series, but the ratio of men to women in the Services was in the neighbourhood of 10 or 15:1. A further reference to this group will be made in the section dealing with aetiology.

Occupation

In 100 male cases and 47 female cases at ages 65 or less the *profession or trade*, if any, was sufficiently clearly indicated to allow of an occupational classification. Of the women 11 were single and of these 5 were gainfully occupied. The married women were classified as "housewives", four of them were, in addition, gainfully occupied.

TABLE XIII

OCCUPATIONS (males, aged 65 or less)
(100 cases)

Business (including merchants, managers, stock exchange, shopkeepers etc.)	39
Physicians and surgeons	19
Clergy	6
Officers (R.N., Army, R.A.F.)	6
Justices, judges, solicitors	6
Engineers	4

The remainder, each item of which scored less than a 4 per cent incidence, belonged to a great variety of professions and trades and included, for example, a peer of the realm, the driver of a hearse, a colonial rancher, a chief railway clerk, a pro-

fessor of archaeology, and the manager of a skating rink. Of males aged 50 or less at onset (total 39 cases), 12 (30%) were business men, and 11 (28%) physicians or surgeons. It has been previously indicated that according to the standardized mortality ratios published by the Registrar General for the period 1930-2 the highest value was that for the medical profession (see Table VIII).

TABLE XIV

OCCUPATIONS (females, aged 65 or less)
(47 cases)

Married women (classified as housewives)	32
Married women (engaged additionally in gainful occupations)	4
Single women (unoccupied or not stated)	6
Single women (gainfully occupied)	5

Special Stresses

In rather more than a third of all the cases (both sexes) there was a clear enough history of occupational, domestic or other stress preceding the onset of symptoms to warrant a consideration of these factors (in concert with the sex and occupational histories) as having a possible bearing upon aetiology. There was a record of "special stress" preceding the onset of symptoms (in most cases over a prolonged period) in 62 male cases and 27 female cases. Of those cases in which there was no record of special stress a considerable proportion were in retirement on account of age. The absence from the case notes of a history of special stress in these and the remaining cases did not necessarily exclude its occurrence and in some cases the occupation alone made its operations probable. The occurrence of stress is thus under—rather than over—estimated. In a few cases sudden death or a coronary occlusion was shortly preceded by some grave strain or anxiety. Under the heading of special stress were included entries relating to mental overwork or worry in business or the home or in both, heavy public or other responsibilities, or other forms of sustained anxiety. In a few cases intimate knowledge of the patient's affairs was accepted as evidence of stress in the absence of a specific entry relating to it. As the neurotic temperament" (in distinction from an ambitious or conscientious personality pattern) has sometimes been held to be an aetiological factor, entries bearing on this, or its combination with special stress, were also abstracted (Table XV).

Thus specific records of special stress occurred in at least 38 per cent of males and 34 per cent of females in the whole series. Of 9 (married and single) gainfully occupied women, all may be said to have been working under stress. The 5 occupied single women included a nurse, still working to within 6 months of onset at the age of 62, the headmistress

TABLE XV

MALES (164 cases)			
A "Special stress"	B Neurotic temperament plus 'special stress'	C Neurotic temperament without record of special stress"	No specific record
60 (37%)	2 (1%)	5 (3%)	97 (60%)
FEMALES (79 cases)			
22 (28%)	5 (6%)	1 (1%)	51 (65%)

of a big girls' school with many additional public duties and a history of severe mental shock preceding onset at the age of 51, a business woman, excessively nervous and conscientious, with onset at 62, a religious sister in charge of a large students' hostel, with a strong family history of coronary disease and onset at 50, and a massage and physiotherapy instructor, greatly overworked and with a high sense of duty, with onset at 46. If the male cases aged 50 and under at the time of onset are taken, there is a specific history of "special stress" in 21 (54%) out of 39 cases, 6 out of 9 female cases (married and single) aged 50 or under at onset (66%) gave a history of special stress. The occupations of the single women have been noted above. Of the duties of the modern housewife it may at least be said that her domestic responsibilities are seldom light, that her children, her husband and her home tend to be more seriously considered by her as the generations pass, that she often undertakes additional civic or social responsibilities and, in the social classes studied, commonly has a share in her husband's problems which was denied to the Victorian woman. After age 65 a high proportion of patients were in retirement, some of them were in their seventh or eighth decade, 'special stress' would naturally, therefore, have become a less frequent entry. Reliable histories of stress in earlier life are not easily obtained from the elderly, but it was noted as having been operative at some stage in 10 cases (25%) out of 41 males, and in 5 cases (18%) out of 27 females in the later age groups (i.e. 65 or over).

It would be unwise to infer too much from the above figures. It is evident that stresses, both intellectual and emotional, must generally tend to accumulate towards the zenith of a career and to be fewer at its beginning or towards its close. It must also be allowed that, in the taking of clinical histories, modifiable conditions of life may be more carefully sought for in the case of younger and still occupied subjects. But neither of these considerations compels the exclusion of continuing or recurrent stress as an aetiological factor. The sex

and occupational associations reviewed in the statistical study have already drawn attention to its probable importance.

Physical stress. In a few cases golf or tennis was continued into middle or later life, as an addition to an exacting professional career, a few patients had been athletes in their youth, one patient was a blacksmith. There was, however, no strong evidence to suggest that physical over-activity was a factor of comparable importance with mental or emotional over-activity. This is again in accordance with the conclusions to be drawn from the occupational incidence of coronary disease provided by the mortality data, which reveal the relatively low incidence of angina pectoris in manual workers as compared with the professions, to which attention has already been drawn.

Associated Illnesses

The association of angina pectoris and coronary thrombosis with gall-stones or cholecystitis has often been remarked. The incidence of clinically recognized gall-bladder disease in the general population within the age-period under consideration is not known, but it is doubtful whether it would be found to be as high as 9 per cent in males. On the general experience of hospital and private

TABLE XVI
ASSOCIATED ILLNESSES

	Males (164)	Females (79)
Gallstones and cholecystitis	15 (9%)	6 (7%)
Duodenal ulcer	10 (6%)	Nil
(One case had a history of both duodenal ulcer and gall-stones, one of a duodenal and a gastric ulcer)		
Other vascular lesions	7 (4%)	6 (7%)
Obesity	5 (3%)	7 (9%)
Migraine	5 (3%)	Nil
Diabetes or glycosuria	4 (2%)	4 (5%)

practice, peptic ulceration has a much higher frequency than gall-bladder disease. The incidence of duodenal and gastric ulcer in male factory populations and some other employments, according to Doll and Avery Jones (personal communication), is between 5 and 6 per cent. A figure of 6 per cent of cases of peptic ulcer in the males of this series is not necessarily, therefore, in excess of anticipation. Migraine has been stated to be common in the histories of anginal cases. The incidence recorded in this series is probably underestimated (a) because a history of it was not particularly sought for, and (b) because it would not as a rule, be spontaneously mentioned by patients in a request for an account of

"previous illnesses" If there is more than a chance association between migraine and angina, it is probably related to the fact that the same temperament predisposes both to migraine and angina, that both are noted as commoner in professional workers, and both tend to run in families. The incidence of *obesity* has also been underestimated in this series, as only the more obvious cases received specific entry. Although weights were routinely recorded, except in bedridden cases, heights were not, so that height-weight ratios could not be determined. It is doubtful whether obesity is causally related to coronary disease, although it is well known that it may add an extra load to an already incommenced heart.

Other vascular disease Cassidy (*loc cit*) found that hyperpiesis (e.g. a blood pressure of 160 systolic and 100 diastolic or more) was present in nearly 70 per cent of his cases lacking a coincident or recent history of coronary occlusion. In the 150 cases of this series, in which the notes included a clear record, blood pressures of 160/100 or over were recorded at some stage of the disease in 66 cases (44%), a further 7 cases (5%) gave systolic readings of 170 or over with diastolic figures below 100. Very high readings were frequently recorded in uncomplicated angina pectoris and low readings were by no means the rule after a coronary occlusion. If we accept angina pectoris and coronary occlusion as local manifestations of a more general arterial disease, it might be expected that vascular changes or accidents affecting other parts of the body (e.g. cerebral hæmorrhage or thrombosis, retinal hæmorrhage or peripheral arterio-sclerosis with intermittent claudication) would be a common association. In fact there was, up to the date of the last entry, a history of other local vascular symptoms preceding or succeeding the onset of coronary disease in only 7 male cases (4%) and 6 female cases (7%). The reasons for local selective actions in arteriosclerosis have yet to be explained. Normal blood pressures do not exclude its presence.

Taking the men and women together there was a record of syphilis in 3 cases, but none showed signs of cardio-aortic syphilis, of coincidental hyperthyroidism in one case, of hypochromic anæmia in 2 cases (one with a coronary thrombosis and the other with effort angina and a history of angina pectoris in four generations), of asthma in 2 cases, of gout in 2 cases, of paralysis agitans in one case, of diverticulitis in one case. There was one case with an earlier history of unilateral pyonephrosis and one of chronic Bright's disease. Four patients had a synchronous carcinoma of the stomach or bowel, one had had a malignant ovarian cyst removed.

Tobacco and Alcohol

Detailed records of the amount smoked were not kept. Although a large number of men were considerable smokers, in only 2 cases was there a note of "excessive" tobacco consumption, in 4 there was a record of alcoholism, and in 1 of an excessive use of both tobacco and alcohol. Although the majority of men with angina pectoris were smokers, non-smokers are certainly not immune. Among the women of the period and the age groups reviewed smoking was rare.

Family History

Family histories, at no time easy to secure in accurate form, are inevitably defective for this further reason—that sympathetic consideration often compels the avoidance of detailed enquiries about cardiac illness and deaths in the parents or other near relatives of persons themselves the subjects of heart disease. The physician is also faced with the difficulty of deciding in the case of coronary disease, whether to include only cardiac cases or all instances of arteriosclerotic illness in the families studied.

Cassidy (*loc cit*) states that "family history played a part" in "almost exactly half his cases," but he supplies no details. For the reasons given, family histories were not consistently enquired into in this series, in the anxious situations accompanying a coronary occlusion they were often not asked for. There were, however, positive family histories of certain or probable coronary disease relating to a parent, a brother or sister, or others in the direct line in 12 male cases (7%) and in 8 female cases (10%). Among the males there was one instance of the same disease in a father and an uncle, one in a father and a brother, one in two brothers. The probable influence of heredity (whether operating through physical, mental, or temperamental predisposing factors or some combination of these) is supported by such histories as the following, which are taken from the present series.

(a) One medical man, who developed his symptoms before the age of 39, lost a brother from coronary thrombosis in his early thirties.

(b) One religious sister, who developed angina pectoris at 50, gave a history of cardiac deaths in her father, paternal grandfather and grandmother and a paternal great grandmother and of others in these generations, usually between the ages of 50 and 60. Her mother's side of the family was healthy.

(c) An unoccupied spinster, developing symptoms at 60, gave a history of angina or cardiac deaths in her father, and her second and third brothers, and

of "strokes" in her fourth brother and her second, sixth and eighth sisters

(d) Twin brothers (probably monozygotic twins), both formerly Army officers of high distinction and mental attainments, and having a remarkable identity of thought and taste, developed coronary disease within a few years of each other

Of 20 cases (male and female) with positive family histories of angina, coronary thrombosis, or middle-age cardiac deaths, 13 (65%) developed symptoms at the age of 50 or less. In some other chronic diseases such as gout, due in part to an inherited factor, symptoms are apt to develop earlier in life where the family history is strong. Whatever the actual contribution of heredity to ætiology may be, the rising mortality from the disease and its occupational associations suggest that extraneous factors must be considered as of major importance

Prognosis

A study of the natural history of a disease would be incomplete without a consideration of prognosis. A knowledge of social or group experience has interest in itself and value alike for life assurance and individual assessments. Unfortunately, reliable statistical studies of prognosis are at all times difficult and this is especially so in the more chronic types of illness. There are many circumstances that militate against careful follow-up enquiry in cardiac disease, whether in hospital or consulting practice. While it has always been recognized that angina pectoris is a condition in which precise forecasts, whether in respect of survival or of degrees and durations of improvement are scarcely possible, so many are the variable factors concerned, it would yet be of value if we could discover the mean expectation of life in relation to age of onset, mode of onset, and perhaps to some other factors such as ranges of blood-pressure or the presence or absence of other evidences of arterial disease. It is well known that one man may die in his first attack and that another may live for 20 years or more. John Hunter, notwithstanding that he continued to suffer frequent pain, lived and worked for 20 years after his coronary occlusion at the age of 41. Cassidy (*loc cit*) records two cases of patients surviving for more than 30 years, and one of a woman who died suddenly at 82, having experienced effort angina from the age of 30.

Where coronary thrombosis, as distinct from effort angina, is concerned there was a tendency to take too grave a view of prognosis following the recognition of the syndrome characteristic of the graver episodes which first became familiar in this country after the publication of McNee's paper (1925). While a coronary occlusion accompanied

or shortly followed by congestive failure or arrhythmia is commonly succeeded by death in hours, days, weeks, months or at the most a few years, a study of bad attacks in respect of the severity and duration of the pain, but lacking these complications, may reveal a longer expectation of life, sometimes with a resumption of normal activities for considerable periods. With still slighter attacks the outlook may prove to be even better. From the present series three illustrative cases may be selected, each one clinically characteristic and confirmed by cardiographic and subsequent history

(a) A surgeon, working under a very great physical, mental and emotional stress and a heavy smoker, developed effort angina at the age of 39. Some months later, at the age of 40, he had an extremely severe coronary thrombosis from which, for a time, it seemed almost impossible that he would recover. There were secondary complications in the form of an extensive pulmonary infarction with a pleural effusion and a prolonged phase of mental confusion. Within two years he was able to return to his hospital duties and thereafter continued them for a further 13 years, to the time of his death although always handicapped by an effort angina and latterly also by intermittent claudication.

(b) A general practitioner, after prolonged hard work and a sad bereavement, had an attack of coronary thrombosis at the age of 45. Three years previously he had had a cholecystectomy for gallstones. He had otherwise been very healthy and a fine athlete in his youth. He retired from practice early, but was able to do a good deal of steady work in his garden and even for a time to play 36 holes of golf in a day. He remained liable to pain down both arms on walking after meals. He lived happily for 15 years and died during an afternoon nap in his garden.

(c) A masseuse and physiotherapist, the head of a large hospital department and a woman of great energy and with a high sense of duty, had a moderately severe coronary thrombosis at the age of 46. Subsequently she had symptoms of cholecystitis and at one time some gouty symptoms. She was still working in a private capacity 20 years after the original episode.

These three patients were all under 50 at the time of their first symptoms, all overworked, two were endowed with restless energy. About such younger cases, it may be reasonably argued that they lack the more widespread degenerative changes in the vascular system which develop in the later decades and that the coronary occlusion in their case, is more in the nature of a local accident. As coronary occlusion commonly affects subsequent efficiency and the expectation of life in an adverse way, the interval that elapses between the first onset of effort

angina and a first coronary thrombosis or a prolonged attack of pain suggesting a small occlusion, might seem to have some bearing upon the prognosis of the uncomplicated condition. This interval could be estimated in 49 cases only. The approximate duration of uncomplicated angina of effort was estimated in 87 cases.

TABLE XVII

Interval between first onset of angina and first symptoms of coronary occlusion		Duration of history in surviving cases of angina uncomplicated by coronary occlusion (when last examined)	
Men and women (49 cases)		Men and women (82 cases)	
	cases		cases
Less than 5 years	43	Less than 5 years	69
More than 5 "	4	More than 5 "	4
More than 10 "	2	More than 10 "	8
		Twenty years	1

A physician is likely to see an undue proportion of cases in the earlier stages of the disease when they can be referred to him in his consulting room. As, furthermore, the numbers are small and a follow-up enquiry over a further 10 years or more might have been necessary in order to secure the final information in some cases, no conclusion can be drawn from this series with regard to the mean expectation of life at ages in cases of uncomplicated effort angina or of coronary thrombosis. Such conclusions could only be derived from collaborative morbidity studies undertaken by a number of general practitioners covering sufficiently representative social groups and areas of the country and over a sufficient period of time.

Case fatality. According to the data compiled by the Nuffield Bureau of Health and Sickness Records, Oxford, there were 196 patients with coronary disease admitted to the twenty-five hospitals within the Oxfordshire region during the three years 1945-47. The case fatality has been grouped according to age and sex and the All Ages fatality for men and women did not differ appreciably, being 61 and 66 per cent respectively. But at ages under 65 years the rate for males was much higher than that for females. Hence this small sample of hospital statistics, assuming it to be a microcosm of general outside experience, indicates that not only is the disease relatively more concentrated in middle-age in males than in females, but also that it is more fatal to them. It should be noted, however, that cases admitted to hospital are likely to include a high proportion of serious cases. There are, in

fact, no means at present of ascertaining the case fatality at ages in the general community.

The above observations can only be held to indicate some broad probabilities in the disease as a whole in the groups studied.

ÆTIOLOGY REVIEWED

Where the predisposing and precipitating factors in a disease are several and there is no known specific agent of extraneous origin—a situation that obtains in many of the chronic endemic diseases of today (such as hyperpiesia and coronary disease, peptic ulcer, the chronic rheumatic diseases and the psychoneuroses)—and where, furthermore, the suspected factors must operate in varying combination and degree in different individuals, it is impossible, in the present state of our knowledge, to assess the full significance and relative importance of any one factor. In favour, however, of each of the five factors—familial predisposition, sex, ageing, certain types of professional employment, and mental and emotional stress—there is, as has been shown in the two main sections of this paper, considerable presumptive evidence. Furthermore, these factors often operate in conjunction.

(a) maleness on account of the occupations which it entails,

(b) the exacting character of sustained mental work accompanying intellectual occupations and posts involving heavy responsibilities,

(c) ageing, through mounting cares and the longer exposure to stress,

(d) the emotional tensions that frequently, on the one hand, accompany business, professional and intellectual life and interruptions to it, and, on the other, are expressions of

(e) the inheritance of an ambitious or conscientious personality pattern.

We have, at present, no reliable evidence bearing upon the association of special physical types. To the physician in his consulting room patients with angina pectoris present no such conformity of pattern as can be observed, for instance, in a high proportion of cases of duodenal ulcer. As in the case of hyperpiesia, many anginal subjects are of good physique and have enjoyed excellent health in earlier life, this may have contributed to their energetic habits.

It may be argued, on the summary of the evidence presented, that the older the patient developing coronary disease the more have the ordinary exigencies of the years subscribed to the general and the coronary arterial degeneration, and that the younger the patient the more are we entitled to blame exceptional stress and the general pace and

fret of life in our modern mechanized world, in some cases with the added influence of familial predisposition. Statistical studies and clinical observations would seem, in the main, to support one another. Heberden's "disturbance of mind" is not to be ignored as a possible ætiological factor in coronary disease. The very fact that any of the more urgent emotions can precipitate anginal pain, and occasionally even a coronary occlusion, should suggest the possibility that repeated emotional disturbance or prolonged anxiety may have a continuing adverse influence on the coronary vessels. But, whatever part the stronger or more suppressed emotions may play, it would also seem, from the evidence here assembled, that sustained mental over-activity is another form of 'disturbance of mind' which must be taken into account and considered as capable of affecting the coronary circulation and eventually of causing damage to the arteries and the heart. It is not possible to separate the effects of mental overwork and of the emotions (in the form of ordinary worries) which accompany it, but 'the neurotic temperament' had a low incidence in the clinical series. Of all the extraneous factors inimical to hyperpietic subjects, with or without coronary disease, clinical experience, again and again, suggests that mental fatigue and strain and broken sleep are the most outstanding.

The possibility remains that business and the professions tend continually to select from the population those types of person who are most predisposed to the disease. This, however, would scarcely account for the steep rise in incidence and mortality within so short a period as a quarter of a century, and could only partially explain the occupational associations that have been demonstrated. Although it cannot be excluded it does not seem necessary to assume a contribution to male proclivity on the part of the sex hormones, nor is there any suggestion of sex-linked inheritance.

Of the *associated diseases* recorded in this series none would seem to be causally related, with the possible exception of gall-bladder disease. There would be no sufficient reason to think of a relationship in this instance on the score of its observed frequency, but for the further clinical observation than an acute cholecystitis sometimes closely precedes or succeeds a coronary thrombosis. This association should be worthy of more intimate study.

Tobacco The fact that the majority of the women were non smokers and that the disease can occur in male non smokers, renders the influence of nicotine a doubtful one, although it cannot, as yet, be entirely excluded.

The Youthful Cases

Separate consideration must be given to cases in the youngest age-group (20-35). Through the kindness of the author of the paper relating to service cases, based on Ministry of Pensions records (Newman, *loc cit*), we have been provided with notes, not included in his account, bearing upon arm of the service, rank, duties and pre-service occupation for the whole group and abstracts of findings at necropsy in 28 cases. With the exception of one medical officer and two men promoted from the ranks during the war all were in the 'other ranks' category. There was no indication in the brief records available that 'special stress' had been a likely or, at any rate, a sustained experience during service or in civil life. Relatively few (15 out of 50) appear to have been on active combatant service. Most of the cases would have fallen into the Registrar-General's Social Classes IV or V. The ages of the 28 cases examined at necropsy varied from 20-35. In the majority of these arterial changes were so advanced as to suggest that the disease was of some standing and that it had probably started in civil life. The pathological descriptions were not characteristic of syphilitic arteritis. In 6 cases in the whole group the earlier civil occupation might have involved a lead hazard. Reading these records and finding few indications of special occupational stress or other extraneous factor, one might at first feel inclined to reconsider some of the conclusions drawn in the preceding sections. It must, however, be appreciated that these cases—even with the addition of others that may have escaped reporting—must represent a very insignificant proportion of the vast call-up for the three services during the war years. Coronary disease at or below 35 is, in fact, a very rare event. In 1946 the deaths from this cause in England and Wales under age 35 were 69 (0.37%) among 18,800 male deaths and 12 (0.12%) among 9,780 female deaths from coronary disease. Where extraneous factors in early life are far to seek it may possibly be shown that genetic influences play a more important part than habits of life and work.

HISTORICAL RETROSPECT

If the evidence here put forward in the form of joint clinical and epidemiological studies can be accepted as supporting the probable importance of an occupational type of hazard falling more heavily and more considerably with the passage of time upon those sections of the community whose work entails over-exertion of the mind rather than of the body it would seem proper to enquire into the changing social circumstances and habits of our

present era and to compare present with past historical experience. It can scarcely be disputed (1) that the proportion of persons in the country who are professionally and intellectually employed has steadily risen since the industrial revolution of the nineteenth century in concert with such factors as increasing mechanization, the urbanization of the population (some 80 per cent of the people of England and Wales now live in urban areas as compared with 50 per cent a hundred years ago), and the extension of educational opportunity to all classes, (2) that the amount of mental work which can be accomplished by an individual in a day has considerably increased in the past century and especially in the last 25 years. The train, the motor car, the aeroplane, the telegraphic, and telephonic and ordinary and air-mail postal services, the competent secretary, the typewriter and the dictaphone—all these may have made the conduct of affairs more possible, but they have also multiplied the number of intellectual operations—all occasioning vascular responses—that can be performed within a given space of time. Competition in many spheres is more intense. Interruptions to concentrated mental work, which tend to give rise to irritation or frustration, also having their well known vascular accompaniments, are probably far more numerous than formerly. Refreshing sleep is more hardly won. Emotions are more consistently repressed than is the case among more primitive or rural peoples. Professional men a hundred years ago were often just as industrious, but the pace and tempo of their work and the knowledge and responsibilities required of them were of a different order. In no calling, perhaps, would the contrasts be found to be greater than in the medical profession which, of all occupations, shows the highest mortality from coronary disease.

SUMMARY

In the review of the mortality from coronary disease during the past 25 years in England and Wales the following points of interest emerge.

The mortality amongst males and females aged 35 years and upwards in 1945 was 15 times greater than that in 1921 and the annual number of deaths from coronary disease is now approximately 25,000.*

The increments in the age specific death ratio rates for males and females were on the whole very similar, but there is evidence that in the age period 40–55 years the male death-rate was increasing more rapidly than that for females.

Although there was a fair degree of parallelism in the secular trend of the mortality from coronary

and myocardial disease between 1921 and 1938, their subsequent statistical history differed, as the former has continued to increase whereas the latter declined. In 1945 the comparative mortality index for myocardial disease was 24 per cent in defect of the 1938 standard for males and 20 per cent for females.

The increase in the coronary disease mortality in the post-war period is unlikely to be wholly due to a transference of myocardial deaths because there is evidence that the coronary death-rate itself was increasing less rapidly in this period than in pre-war years—the actual death-rates at ages in 1945 being smaller than those predicted on the basis of the statistical experience relating to the period 1931–9.

There is evidence of a distinct sex ratio. The male death-rate in middle age is 5 times greater than that for females. Subsequently the ratio decreases with increasing age and at age 75+ it is less than 2. There is no similar magnitude in sex differentiation for myocardial disease nor is there any definite correlation with age.

The most realistic explanation of this sex difference would be to ascribe it to an occupational or socio-economic influence. The mortality from coronary disease amongst men aged 45–55 in Social Class I is nearly 10 times greater than that of wives, and men of this social category are mainly those in professions and business administration, in which the mental stress and strain accruing from their responsibilities is heavy.

The mortality from coronary disease varies in different regions of the country. The significance and meaning of this geographical variation cannot be accurately assessed owing to absence of requisite information on the age and social stratification of the population within each areal unit. This knowledge is necessary because age and social status are important correlates of the mortality from the disease.

The mortality from cerebral vascular disease showed an increase parallel with that for coronary disease up to 1939.

The findings of the clinical study, making due allowance for its limitations, reveal a general conformity with those of the statistical study, and help to illustrate in a more detailed way some of the conclusions pertaining to possible causal influences. Age of onset has been discussed. It was 50 years or less in one-quarter of the men and one-eighth of the women. The need and some directives for further enquiry into prognosis have been indicated.

Disease of the coronary arteries has, finally, been considered briefly in its historical context and in particular relation to the remarkable social changes

* Deaths from angina pectoris and coronary disease in 1947 totalled 33,168.

that have occurred since it was first described 180 years ago

CONCLUSIONS

The natural history of coronary disease has been discussed on the basis of a statistical study and of clinical experience, and in particular reference to its rising incidence and its social and occupational associations. The effect of multiple cumulative causes has never, perhaps, been sufficiently emphasized in considering the genesis whether of symptoms or of pathological changes. Effort angina induced by walking a given distance often occurs more readily (a) after a meal, (b) on a cold day, (c) in a state of anxiety or fatigue, than in the absence of one or more of these circumstances. Similarly, the buttressing effects of the several factors reviewed in this paper may be regarded as subscribing to the slow genesis of the underlying arterial change. There is nothing pointing to such alternative causal influences as infection or faulty nutrition. The chemical pressor substances that determine the vascular reactions are endogenous and the product of nervous stimulation.

Physicians are properly interested in the possible practical applications of their enquiries. It seems at present remotely unlikely that we shall discover a "cure" for general arteriosclerosis or coronary artery disease—some part of the processes involved being irreversible. In any case, diseases that attain a wide prevalence, having once been relatively rare, should be constantly considered with a view to a better understanding of how their incidence may be reduced—at least in those age-groups that cover the period of active work and citizenship.

No such dramatic answers are here likely to be forthcoming as in the case of a bacterial or nutritional disease, but, even though they be counsels of perfection, we can at least argue that existing conditions of work in many professional and business careers impose strains which, when endured too long, are beyond physiological tolerance and that the conditions thus call for amendment, that members of predisposed families might sometimes be encouraged at an earlier stage, and even in the face of an activating conscience or ambition, to regulate their lives more rationally, that, in the field of personal hygiene, the organization of holidays, leisure, exercise and pleasurable relaxation is as sensible as attention to sanitary habits and balanced dietaries, and that the detection of hyperpiesia in the earlier phase by periodic health examinations could have value. The fact remains, however, that mental activity, unlike manual labour, cannot be readily limited by legislation or arrested by the clock. For some time to come we are, therefore, likely to witness a high toll of incapacitation and a sustained, perhaps increasing, death-rate from coronary artery disease affecting—and often at the time of their greatest efficiency—some of the more industrious members of the community in both sexes and in all classes, but more especially the male mental workers of the higher socio-economic grades. This trend is likely to continue—the general ageing of the population making its contribution—until such time as our social reorganization is directed in new ways and in better measure to the promotion of healthy living through a more precise physiological and psychological understanding of man and his capacities and a deeper appreciation of his individual and social needs.

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CONGENITAL AORTIC SEPTAL DEFECT

BY

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A defect in the wall of the ascending aorta leading to free communication with the adjacent pulmonary artery is a rare congenital abnormality. The opening in the anterior wall of the aorta is just above the semilunar cusps and leads directly into the pulmonary artery. Maude Abbott (1927) regarded it as a partial defect of the aortic septum, probably at the point where the distal bulbar swellings meet the aortic septum and above the junction of the aortic and interventricular septa. A commoner form of communication is between an aortic sinus and either the conus of the right ventricle (Abbott, 1919, Brown, 1939) or the right auricle (Goehring, 1920, Macleod, 1944), usually due to a ruptured congenital aneurysm of a sinus of Valsalva. Abbott (1937) also described a third rarer variety where a small hole in the aortic wall, just above the valves leads into the conus by an oblique channel. Here the aortic valves are usually bicuspid. An example of this type of abnormality was described by Rickards (1881).

This report concerns an example of the first of these anomalies, an example of value chiefly because there were no other congenital defects. The various features, clinical and pathological, to which the aortic septal patency had led, formed a combined picture of the pure defect that is rarely seen and therefore worth recording.

CASE REPORT

A boy of 14 came under observation about two years before he died, when admitted to Horton Emergency Hospital in May 1943 for increasing dyspnoea on exertion and for palpitation. He had been breathless from infancy, and his activities had been severely curtailed since early childhood, though latterly he had done a light office job near his home. He had been prone to recurrent bronchitis and more recently to severe epistaxes.

He was a pale stunted youth with a kyphotic chest the anterior wall of which bulged forward

prominently on the left side. Cardiac pulsation was diffuse and thrusting, with the impulse maximal in the seventh space 16 cm to the left of the midline. The beat was regular at a resting rate of 80 a minute. A diastolic thrill was easily palpable just inside the cardiac impulse and also to the left of the sternum at the base. A systolic and a diastolic murmur were heard all over the præcordia, the latter generally louder and more impressive and best heard in the pulmonary area and just internal to the impulse. The systolic element, loudest in the aortic area where it overshadowed the other, was well conducted to the root of the neck on each side. Both heart sounds were audible in all areas, and the pulmonary second sound was accentuated. The blood pressure was 130/40 and the pulse collapsing. Neither cyanosis nor clubbing were present, nor had he any congestive failure. Other systems were normal.

Radioscopy showed a huge aneurysmal shadow comprising the pulmonary artery and aorta astride the greatly enlarged heart (Fig 1). The aortic component was normally sited but very pulsatile, and no separate aortic knuckle could be seen. In oblique views the ascending aorta was prominent, and a barium swallow showed a combined aorto-pulmonary impression. Both ventricles were very large, the right larger than the left, and the right auricle was also thought to be moderately enlarged. The left auricle was flat in the right (l) oblique position (Fig 2), but the pulmonary artery radicles were all prominent and there was a marked hilar dance. Apart from their enlarged vessels the lung fields were normal. An electrocardiogram showed a rather low voltage R I, high R II and R III and a diphasic T I, but was otherwise unremarkable (Fig 3).

After keeping fairly fit and at work until October 1944 he then began to have recurrent faints and increasing breathlessness, for which he was readmitted the following January. He was still pale, but now moderately cyanosed as well, though he

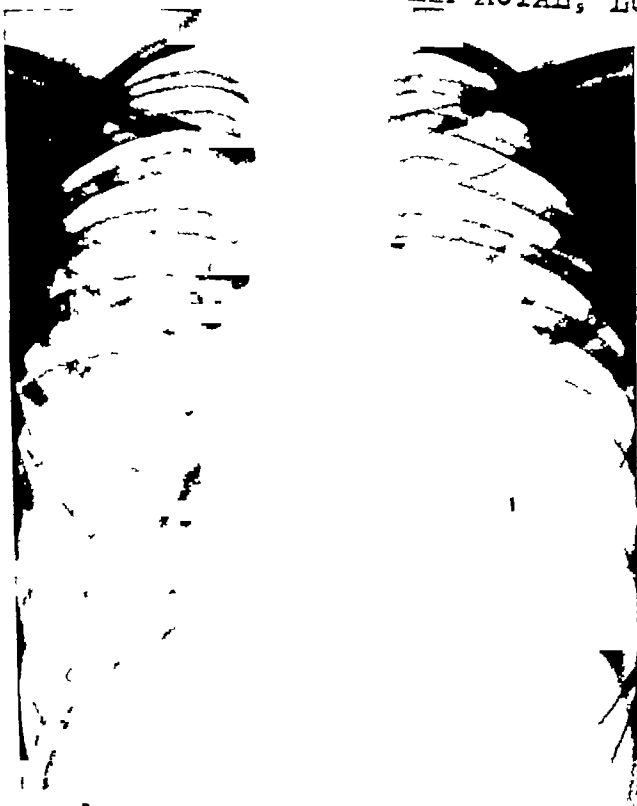


FIG 1—Radiograph (anterior view) showing aorto-pulmonary sac, enlarged pulmonary vessels and enlarged ventricles 26/5/43

FIG 2—Radiograph (right (I) oblique view) showing aorto-pulmonary sac and aortic arch above it, enlarged right ventricle and flat left auricle

had a normal blood count. There was no congestion and his cardiovascular signs were unaltered except that the heart's action was more forceful and further enlargement of the aneurysmal sac and of both ventricles was evident radiologically (Fig 4). He had repeated nose bleeds and also, from time to time severe sweating attacks which were quite unexplained. There was no evidence of endocarditis or other infective process. He improved gradually with rest and was convalescent by March.

He was admitted for the last time seven months later in congestive heart failure. He had fallen ill a week before with catarrhal symptoms and was already in a grave state when admitted orthopnoeic, moderately cyanosed and sweating profusely, though afebrile. The neck veins were much engorged, the liver enlarged, tender and pulsating, and there was dependent oedema. The left chest wall bulged even more than before and the action of the heart shook the whole thorax. The murmurs were unaltered except that the diastolic murmur was more obtrusive and now loudest in the mitral area. The

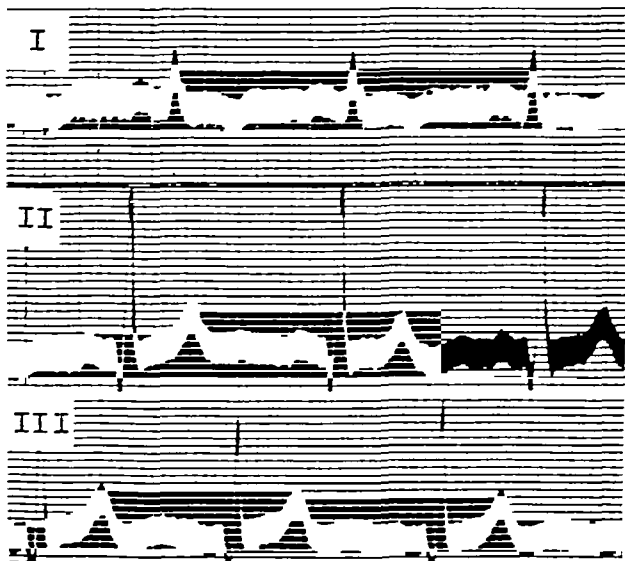


FIG 3—Electrocardiogram



FIG 4—Radiograph (anterior view) showing further enlargement of aorto-pulmonary sac and heart also more engorgement of lung vessels 22/4/44 The maximum transverse diameter is now 18 cm in a chest of 24.5 cm instead of 16/23.5 cm in 1943 (Fig 1)

pulmonary second sound was very loud. Rest, sedatives, and diuretics failed to give relief and he died suddenly a few days later.

NECROPSY REPORT

The body was well nourished but undersized. Both lungs were congested and there was excess of straw-coloured fluid in the pleural sacs and about

350 ml in the pericardium. The liver was enlarged and intensely congested.

In situ the heart was surmounted by a large aneurysmal sac comprising the main pulmonary artery and the contiguous aorta (Fig 5). The heart weighed 390 g and was greatly enlarged. Both ventricles were much hypertrophied and dilated, the right ventricle particularly. Their walls were of equal thickness, measuring 2.0 cm across. In



FIG 5—Necropsy specimen, anterior view showing the aneurysmal sac

contrast the auricles were not enlarged. All the heart valves were normal, but the mitral ring took three fingers easily. The interauricular and inter-ventricular septa were normal.

The aneurysmal sac when opened showed a wide communication between the hugely dilated pulmonary artery and the base of the aorta just above the valves. The defect measured 6.0 by 5.0 cm. Its edges were quite smooth and a small septal ridge formed its lower border between the aortic and pulmonary valves. The valve cusps were all

normally sited. The size of the defect was such that it gave an appearance of both ventricles opening through their respective valves into a common sac from which the right and left pulmonary arteries arose above and posteriorly and the aorta above, anteriorly and to the right. The aorta itself was markedly hypoplastic measuring 4.1 cm in circumference at the top of the arch. There was no coarctation; the innominate, left common carotid and left subclavian arteries were normally sited and the fibrosed cord of the ductus was identified

above the aneurysmal sac. The main coronary vessels were normal in distribution and appearance.

Other organs were normal apart from congestion. Sections of the lung tissue showed no endarteritis.

CASES PREVIOUSLY REPORTED

Congenital aortic septal defects were reviewed by Hektoen in 1901, and by Abbott in 1927 and 1937. Hektoen had one case and collected nine others, one of these, mentioned already, was described by Rickards in 1881, and as it seems to belong to the rare third group of defect described by Abbott, we have not included it in this review. One further reported case was mentioned by Abbott in 1937, and Curtis Bain and Parkinson (1943) have since recorded another. The chief findings in these 11 cases are summarized in Table I.

The average age at death was 14 years, but this approximate figure is much affected by two of the series who survived to 37 (Girard, 1895) and 48 (Moorhead and Smith, 1922) years respectively and in both of whom the septal defect was small. Three dying in early infancy (Gerhardt, 1874, Rauchfuss, 1878, Hektoen, 1901) are not fully described, and two (Baginsky, 1879, Cæsar, 1880) died respectively in childhood from convulsions during whooping cough and from brain abscess and tuberculous meningitis. Excluding all these, it is still evident, however, that the defect is a serious threat to life, for only one of the five remaining cases, including our own, survived beyond the second decade. Indeed, the most remarkable feature of our case was his survival until adolescence despite such a gross defect—a feature shared with the example reported by Bain and Parkinson (1943).

Though survival is variable, the physical limitations that the defect imposes appear to be almost uniform and always considerable. Symptoms of cardiac insufficiency from early infancy are always recorded where details are given, with one exception (Moorhead and Smith, 1922). This exception was a man of 48, fit until 9 months before his death when symptoms began suddenly with severe chest pain and dyspnoea. Although the sudden onset, rapid course and previous good health suggested an acquired condition, the absence of disease in the aortic wall compelled the authors to regard the defect as congenital. With the two exceptions already noted (Baginsky, 1879, Cæsar, 1880) and another three for whom the cause of death was not stated, all the others died with congestive heart failure. There is no record of endocarditis as a complication, and the only mention of clubbing is by Cæsar (1880) and Bain and Parkinson (1943) who noted its moderate degree. In both these

clinical points there is a similarity to atrial septal defect (Bedford, Papp, and Parkinson, 1941).

The cardiac murmurs vary greatly. Cæsar (1880) specifically noted the absence of murmurs and both Wilks (1859) and Girard (1895) mentioned only a loud systolic murmur over the base of the heart. Fränzel (1868), Baginsky (1879) and Moorhead and Smith (1922) all described a double murmur. A loud apical diastolic murmur alone with a thrill, was noted by Bain and Parkinson (1943). It is evident that basically the signs are similar to those of any other free leakage from the aorta above the cusps as with a patent ductus, a ruptured aneurysm of a sinus of Valsalva, and an acquired communication between the aorta and pulmonary artery. Abbott (1937) suggested that diastolic accentuation might be due to secondary pulmonary insufficiency. Although a functional incompetency may well have been present in our case, none could be demonstrated at necropsy. Abbott also noted that the double murmur seemed to be more superficial than that of a patent ductus, an observation that we can confirm. As in our case, Moorhead and Smith (1922) found a large pulse pressure, the only other record (Bain and Parkinson 1943) failed to show it.

The heart is always much enlarged. Dilatation and hypertrophy affect both ventricles, the right one especially. Aneurysmal dilatation of the pulmonary artery, by far the most impressive finding in our case, is by no means constant, a fact no doubt related to the frequency of small defects. Wilks (1859) drew attention, however, to the importance of pulmonary artery dilatation in his own case, and Bain and Parkinson (1943) found the pulmonary artery forming about two thirds of the aneurysmal sac.

The site of the defect is remarkably constant and the lower border is formed by a smooth ridge of tissue separating the aortic and pulmonary sinuses. Though variable in size, the defect is generally small, about 1 cm in diameter. In our own case it was 6 cm × 5 cm, and, as in that of Bain and Parkinson (1943), was quite exceptional. The fine smooth edges are characteristic and distinguish the congenital from the commoner acquired communication between aorta and pulmonary artery (Brocq, 1885 and 1886). Moreover, acquired defects are accompanied by aortic disease, commonly a ruptured aneurysm of the ascending aorta (Porter, 1942).

Judging from the few records, other congenital cardiovascular defects are usually absent. Fränzel (1868) found the pulmonary artery distributed to the left lung only, the right pulmonary artery springing from the ascending aorta. Hektoen's case (1901),

TABLE 1—DETAILS OF REPORTED CASES OF AORTIC SEPTAL DEFECT

Author	Age	Sex	History and symptoms	Signs	Mode of death	Description of defect, heart and vessels	Ductus	Other defects
Ellison (1830)	Young	F	Cyanosed from birth Two weeks before death edema cyanosis orthopnea	Violent heart beat No clinical disease of heart	Congestive failure	Opening at point where aorta and pulmonary artery lie in contact, admitting at least a finger	Closed	None
Wilks (1859)	8 mth	F	From 4 months severe dyspnea	Loud systolic over base and greater part of chest	Congestive failure	Midway between valves and in nominate artery smooth edges, admitting goose quill Rt ventricle enlarged and pulmonary artery larger than aorta	Closed	Slight valvular patency of foramen ovale
Frankel (1868)	25 yr	F	Dyspnea and palpitation always	Diastolic maximal at base to right of sternum Systolic maximal at apex Changing murmurs in two months before death Harsh murmur over heart	Congestive failure	1 cm above aortic cusps circular 12 mm in diameter Left and right ventricles dilated and hypertrophied Aorta larger than pulmonary artery	Closed	Pulmonary artery distributed to Lt lung only Rt from ascending aorta
Gerhardt (1874)	5 mth	F	No details	No details	—	Just above valves size of half a lentil sharp margins	Not stated	None
Ruchfus (1878)	Nursing	—	No details	Many systolic and diastolic murmurs Irregular rhythm	—	No details, but stated to be similar to Gerhardt's specimen	Closed	No details
Bogensky (1879)	4 yr	F	From 8 days repeated bronchitis and failure	Many systolic and diastolic murmurs Irregular rhythm	Convulsions pertussis	Triangular 0.5 cm above aortic cusps 1 cm in largest diameter Both ventricles hypertrophied Rt greater than Lt Wt 250 g	Closed	None
Cesar (1880)	9 yr	M	Cyanosed from 8 months Activity always limited	No murmurs Finger and toe clubbing from 3 months	Braun abscess and tubercle in left lung	A little above aortic cusps size of sixpence Ascending aorta its big as an adult's	Not stated	Pulmonary valves perforated in several places
Girard (1895)	37 yr	M	From 1 year dyspnea and cardiac distress	Systolic murmur with accentuated second sound Enlarged heart gallop rhythm	Congestive failure	1 cm above aortic cusps 1 cm in diameter Hypertrophy, especially of Rt ventricle Aorta larger than pulmonary artery Wt 670 g	Not stated	None
Heikonen (1901)	New born	M	No details	No details	—	2 cm above pulmonary cusps oval took tip of finger	Patent	Foramen ovale widely patent
Moorhead and Smith (1922)	48 yr	M	Sudden onset severe chest pain dyspnea failing strength last 9 months	Double murmur resembling aortic leak to left of sternum Diastolic conducted to apex Large heart B P 160/40	Congestive failure	2 cm above pulmonary cusps took tip of finger opened into saccular dilatation of origin of aorta, which was stenosed above it	Closed	None
Burn and Parkinson (1941)	18 yr	M	Cyanosis and dyspnea on exertion from infancy worse for 6 years Anemia for 6 months	Cyanosis Moderate clubbing Large heart mainly to right with aneurysmal pulmonary artery Apical diastolic thrill and murmur B P 125/100	Congestive failure Sudden death	Single aorta pulmonary size 8 × 7 × 6 cm Rt ventricle greatly enlarged Lt ventricle normal	Not stated	Single brachio cephalic trunk Narrowed aortic orifice funnel led orifices of both pulmonary arteries Descending aorta arising from sac

dying at birth, had a patent ductus and widely patent foramen ovale, and Wilks' case (1859) at eight months also had a slight valvular patency of the foramen ovale. Cæsar (1880) found the pulmonary valves perforated in several places. Bain and Parkinson (1943) found a common brachiocephalic trunk and funnelled openings from the sac into each main branch of the pulmonary artery. Apart from these few, the aortic septal defect has been the sole congenital abnormality in all the recorded examples. In contrast to this rarity of other defects, the communication produced by rupture of the right sinus of Valsalva into the conus is generally accompanied by a defect in the membranous part of the septum.

DIAGNOSIS

The clinical recognition of congenital patency of the aortic septum is necessarily difficult, if only because of its rarity. In none of the recorded cases was the diagnosis made in life, and it is doubtful how far it has, in fact, been considered hitherto. Certainly in our own case it was not. We believed we were dealing with a complicated defect, including a patent ductus arteriosus and probably an atrial septal defect, a combined condition that has been reported and has been diagnosed during life.

The question remains whether a pure aortic septal defect can be recognized in life. Acquired defects are not uncommonly recognized (Porter, 1942; Schattenberg and Harris, 1943). Primarily the diagnosis depends upon signs of a free leak from the aorta in the presence of a dilated pulmonary arterial tree and enlargement of both ventricles. Such a combination is rare enough if we except patent ductus arteriosus either alone or along with an atrial septal defect. When a patent ductus is the sole abnormality, enlargement of the heart and of the pulmonary artery and its branches is rarely so striking as that found with the large aortic septal defects in Bain and Parkinson's case and in our own. As, however, the defect is often small, the same degree of enlargement is not always found.

The difference from a patent ductus would then be much less obvious, and a distinction have to rest with the more superficial murmur. When a patent ductus has anomalous signs, even no murmur, yet an unusually large pulmonary artery and branches, the difficulties in recognition may well be insuperable. The injection of contrast media by the basilic vein is unlikely to provide conclusive evidence regarding the exact site of the aortopulmonary leak because dilution in the pulmonary artery by the aortic blood would make radiographic interpretation so difficult. Perhaps in future

retrograde angiocardiology may resolve the difficulty. It is said to outline a patent ductus very clearly, and would almost certainly show the site and size of an aortic septal defect.

Atrial septal defect alone, however, should be distinguishable, for here the auscultatory signs, though they may suggest an aortic leak, are not accompanied by excessive pulsation in the aorta and its main branches, nor by an increased pulse pressure. Moreover, dyspnoea is late as a symptom, so late that a fair capacity for exertion is retained even with an enlarged heart well into middle life, a further contrast with aortic septal defect. Also congestive failure is not found before the third decade of life, nor is the left ventricle characteristically involved in the cardiac enlargement. Atrial septal defects also give characteristic findings on right heart catheterization (Howart, McMichael, and Sharpey Schafer, 1947).

If an atrial septal defect is accompanied by a patent ductus the similarity to a widely patent aortic septum is much more striking, especially in the degree of enlargement of right ventricle and pulmonary arteries. But here again catheterization might be expected to reveal the atrial defect and suggest this combination from the associated physical signs.

In so far as there is a common arterial sac with which both ventricles communicate, it might be expected that a persistent truncus arteriosus would most closely resemble a wide patency of the aortic septum, and yet, to judge from the records, this is not necessarily so. There is general agreement on the poor prognosis of a truncus, the presence of a systolic murmur and thrill along with much enlargement of both ventricles, and a broad vascular pedicle. But with a truncus, cyanosis is usually early and marked, although Taussig (1947) has recently claimed that this is the case only when the pulmonary circulation is maintained largely through the bronchial arteries. The main pulmonary arteries are then either absent or rudimentary, and the radiological counterparts are the finding of small and ill-defined hilar shadows, a concave upper margin of the left border of the heart, and a hazy margin of the aortic arch due to the abnormally large superior bronchial arteries arising from it (Taussig, 1947). These points might clearly help to separate a truncus case of this type from a simple aortic septal defect, though in her recent book Taussig (1947) makes no reference to the latter.

We also have to consider in differential diagnosis joint aortic and pulmonary valvular disease, aneurysm of a sinus of Valsalva, and an acquired as distinct from a congenital aortic septal defect. None of these is likely to be traced to early child

hood by the symptoms and they all have the marks of acquired disease—rheumatic, syphilitic, or bacterial. An acquired aortic septal defect has a sudden, even dramatic, onset and runs a rapid course, commonly as a complication of an existing aortic aneurysm or, more rarely, of bacterial endarteritis. Evidence of an infection is in each condition more important as a guide than the details of cardiac enlargement or the nature of any murmurs. Combined enlargement of right and left ventricles, pulmonary arteries, and aortic root may be present in all of them as well as in congenital aortic septal defect, and along with this a double basal murmur, increased pulsation in the aorta and its branches, and an increased pulse pressure.

Separation from congenital aortic septal defect may be feasible only if the probability of an acquired lesion in a subject past youth is integrated with collateral evidence of an infective cause.

SUMMARY

An example of congenital aortic septal defect is described together with radiological and necropsy findings.

Reported cases are reviewed and the diagnosis discussed.

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THORACOSCOPY AS AN AID TO DIAGNOSIS IN CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

BY

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The advent of surgery in the treatment of congenital heart disease has meant that accuracy in the detailed diagnosis of the anatomy of the great vessels has become a matter of paramount importance instead of, as was formerly the case, an interesting mental exercise. Especially is this so when we are dealing with cyanotic heart disease, of which Fallot's tetralogy forms 70 per cent of cases. Anomalies additional to the classical four are not uncommon and may compel an exploratory thoracotomy before a decision can be made as to which side is the better surgical approach.

Blalock (1946, 1947, and 1948) advocates that the approach be made on the side of the innominate artery, and points out that if the aortic arch is right-sided, the innominate artery is located on the left side. There is, however, as he states, a wide variation in the arteries arising from the aorta, and in some cases all four arteries have arisen independently from the aortic arch, there being no innominate artery at all. In 1947 he suggested the more extensive use of visualisation of the heart and great vessels by the injection of radio-opaque substances, but even this method leaves unsolved many questions that can only be answered after the vessels have been examined by direct vision.

These difficulties were brought home to us in the recent case of a boy of 14 on whom we operated, with Fallot's tetralogy and a complete right-sided aorta. Following Blalock's suggestion that in such cases the innominate subclavian was more likely to be found in the left hemithorax, a left thoracotomy was performed. The aortic arch was found to be high in the mediastinum, with the subclavian coming directly from its upper medial aspect. There was a gap of about an inch between the aortic arch and the hypoplastic pulmonary artery, but it proved impossible to bridge this by the short avail-

able subclavian artery even though a maximal length had been freed and turned down.

After this disappointment it was decided to attempt another diagnostic investigation in future cases, namely thoracoscopy after the induction of pneumothorax. Apart from the advantage that it is not such a major procedure as thoracotomy one hoped that this would supply the answer to many questions that exercise the mind of the surgeon before operating, such as the calibre and condition of the vessel wall, the extent of coarctation, and the condition of the aorta beyond the constriction. Thoracoscopy can be done on the table as a preliminary to immediate operation, or it can be done some days previously.

The following cases illustrate the use of this technique, the limitations and possibilities of which are still being investigated.

Case 1 A puny but intelligent girl aged 7, was deeply cyanosed with gross parrot-beaked clubbing of fingers and toes. Clinically she appeared to be a case of dextrocardia with Fallot's tetralogy. On X-ray examination there was a pulsating shadow projecting from the heart on its left side and behind it. This shadow was provisionally interpreted as an enlarged auricle, possibly due to patent interauricular septum. Angiocardiography indicated that the ascending and transverse portions of the aortic arch and about one inch of the descending aorta were on the right side. Barium swallow showed no notching of the œsophagus to suggest a vessel crossing behind (Williams, 1947).

A left-sided pneumothorax was induced with 300 ml of air. The next day a thoracoscope (G U type 9 mm diameter) was inserted in the 6th left interspace near the angle of the rib, the patient lying on her right side. The lung was lying on the mediastinum but could be pushed out of the way

with the thoracoscope to reveal a "pulsating tumour" behind, the tumour was pink, smooth, retropleural and its pulsations were expansile, it emerged from the mediastinum and descended alongside the spine to disappear behind the lung. It was in fact the aorta which had crossed over the spine from the right side. The subclavian artery was concealed by the lung as it lay on the mediastinum.

Case 2 A Msutu boy, aged 3, suffered from coarctation of the aorta. He had had four episodes of left ventricular failure with triple rhythm, an alternating pulse (10 mm of mercury) and moist sounds in the lungs, but when admitted his general condition was fairly good and failure had cleared apart from some rales in the left lung. Both carotids were pulsating vigorously, and the apex beat was in the sixth left interspace in the anterior axillary line. The femoral pulses could not be felt. A systolic murmur was heard over the third left interspace just lateral to the sternum. The blood pressure was 110/90 in the left arm and 170/120 in the right. There was some retarded development of the buttocks and legs.

X-ray examination confirmed the enlargement of the left ventricle and showed a normal aortic knuckle, but also slight enlargement of the right ventricle. There was notching of the ribs on the right side though not on the left. The following suggestions were made to account for his right ventricular enlargement:

(a) A patent interventricular septum, but the murmur was atypical.

(b) A co-existing patent ductus arteriosus without the characteristic machinery murmur. In view of the child's age it was difficult to dismiss this possibility, which would imply that the coarctation was infantile in type with a wider area of stenosis than usual. This was supported by the absence of notching of the left ribs.

(c) The four previous attacks of left-sided heart failure had resulted in hypertrophy of the right ventricle. The pulmonary vascular X-ray shadows were noted to be heavy.

Induction of a pneumothorax followed by screening and, if necessary, thoracoscopy presented itself as the simplest means of deciding, and was performed on the left side with 500 ml of air. Screening showed that the lung was partially collapsed and, with the child vertical, was falling away from the mediastinum. The aortic knuckle pulsed vigorously but seemed to be cut short about the middle of the arch. Three days later a thoracoscope was inserted in the 4th left interspace between the scapular border and the spine, the patient lying on his right side. Because the lung overlaid the

mediastinum the patient was then turned on his left side, and the table tilted into a moderate counter-Trendelenburg position. The view now obtained through a right angle vision telescope had completely changed: the lung had fallen outwards, downwards and forwards, putting the pulmonary hilus on a slight stretch (Fig 1). The aortic arch was well exposed as it emerged from under the thymus, and the descending aorta could be viewed from above for a considerable part of its length towards the diaphragm. A tight coarctation was identified involving the root of a very small subclavian artery and extending for about 1 cm outwards. The descending aorta was pulsating less than the arch above the coarctation, and there was less discrepancy between the calibre of the aorta distal and proximal to the coarctation than had been expected. Several large upper intercostal vessels were seen, and also a large internal mammary artery. The vasa vasorum on the descending arch just distal to the constriction were dilated. A good view of the surface of the lung hilus was obtained. No ductus arteriosus was visible nor fold of pleura raised by a ligamentum arteriosum. The lung and descending aorta appeared normal. After withdrawing the telescope air was sucked out of the chest and the wound closed with a stitch. The child slept for six hours following this procedure but next day developed a consolidation of the middle lobe of the right lung, from which he made an uneventful recovery. However, at operation one month later he died after the chest was opened and before the coarctation was excised. The heart stopped beating and could not be made to contract again. Post-mortem the heart weighed 121 grams, showing marked hypertrophy of the left ventricle and, to a less degree, of the right ventricle. There was no patent ductus arteriosus. The coarctation was confirmed at the level of the root of the atresic subclavian artery. Microscopic examination showed extensive perivascular fibrosis of the myocardium and intimal plaques of calcium in the coronary arteries.

Case 3 A European boy, aged 7, suffered from Fallot's tetralogy. He had been blue since the age of one year and cyanosis was increased by exertion. He could not run at all fast and after ambling for about 30 yards he would squat on his heels.

On examination the veins of the neck were engorged above the angle of Lewis. The fingers were clubbed and the nails were cyanosed as was the face even when at rest in bed. Arterial pulsation was visible above the clavicles. The apex beat was within normal limits, but there was a heaving impulse over the præcordium. A systolic murmur was present over the whole præcordium, loudest over

the second left intercostal space. There was no enlargement of liver or spleen. Blood pressure 110/90 in both arms. The red cell count was 7,100,000. X-ray examination showed right ventricular enlargement with the aortic knuckle on the left. The pulmonary conus was visible but diminished on its under side. The pulmonary vascular shadows were slight, especially towards the lung periphery. There was right axis deviation.

A right pneumothorax was induced with 400 ml of air and a thoracoscope (Coryllos-direct) was inserted into the first right intercostal space in the midclavicular line. The subclavian artery was well

difficultly in performing the anastomosis and this was confirmed by immediate thoracotomy on the right side.

Case 4 A Zulu girl, aged 9, was admitted in congestive heart failure. No good history could be obtained and it was impossible to find out whether she had ever suffered from rheumatism or not. The veins of the neck were engorged and pulsating two inches above the angle of Lewis. She had œdema of both ankles and an enlarged liver but was not unduly breathless when lying in bed, but stated she was breathless when on her feet. Blood

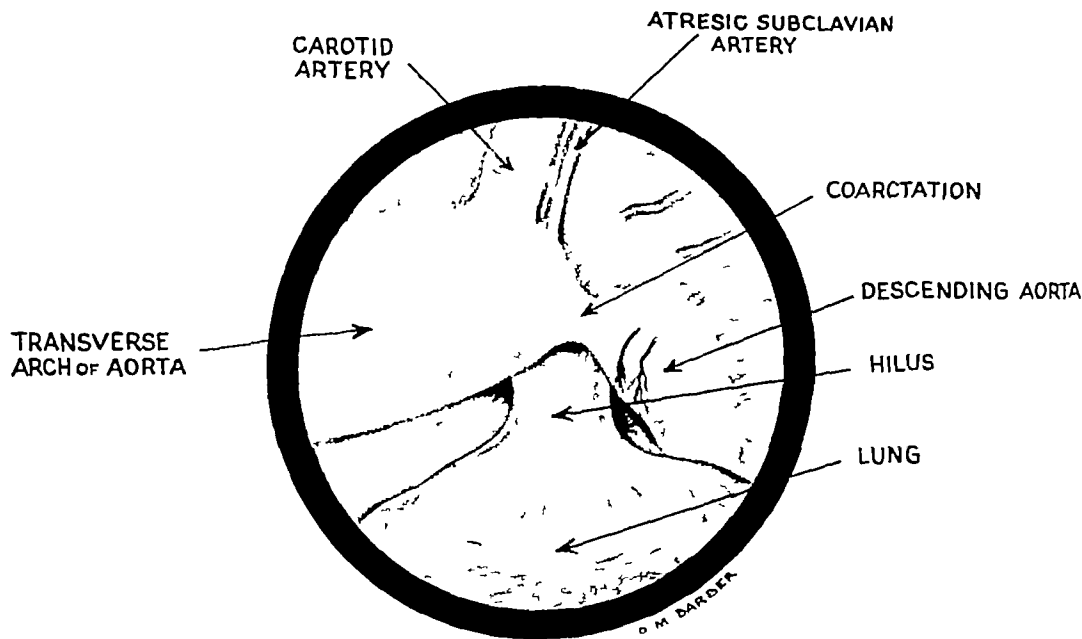


FIG. 1—Case 2. Aortic arch seen from the side and above by right angled telescope.

visualized and also a considerable number of collateral vessels. The subclavian appeared to be a large artery and raised a ridge on the mediastinal pleura. A large innominate vein was seen with a vein running from it to communicate with a large azygos. The pulmonary artery could not be identified because of numbers of small engorged veins just above the hilus of the lung and the azygos vein. Although the pulmonary vessels could not be seen their position was estimated approximately from the level of the hilar pleura. The aortic arch was viewed travelling towards the left and not descending on the right side. The appearance of the subclavian artery suggested that there would be no

pressure 104/60. Pulse regular 144. The apex beat was in the 5th space just outside the mid clavicular line. The præcordium was bulging and a diffuse heaving impulse was visible, with an apical systolic thrill. There was a harsh systolic murmur loudest over the apex but audible over the whole præcordium. In the 2nd left interspace an inch outside the sternal margin, there was also a sound that at times seemed to fill the whole diastolic pause, but because of the tachycardia it was difficult to decide whether this was really a machinery murmur or a third closed sound. Phonocardiography did not help. After a week's treatment with digitalis she came out of failure but her pulse rate never came

down below 120 X-ray examination and screening revealed a *mitral-shaped heart*, considerably increased in its transverse diameter Both ventricles were enlarged, the right more than the left and also the left auricle The aorta appeared to be hypoplastic There was some vascular congestion of both lung fields but no hilar dance Various diagnoses were considered

Cardiac catheterization (Dr van Lingen) gave no evidence of an intracardiac vascular shunt The catheter point failed to pass into the pulmonary valve and appeared to be washed back from it, which was regarded as evidence of pulmonary incompetence However, in spite of the atypical X-ray and blood pressure we decided, in view of the

child developed acute nephritis and operation has had to be deferred Her heart rate is slower and the murmur is now typically machinery in character

Case 5 A European boy, aged 9, was sent in as a case of coarctation of the aorta The blood pressure in both arms was 150/120 and his femoral pulses could not be felt His condition was complicated by *petit mal* He was otherwise a bright and normal boy It was decided to control the *petit mal* with phenobarbitone before operating and to perform thoracoscopy with the idea of not only viewing the coarctation but of assessing any change in the condition of the aorta that might occur subsequently

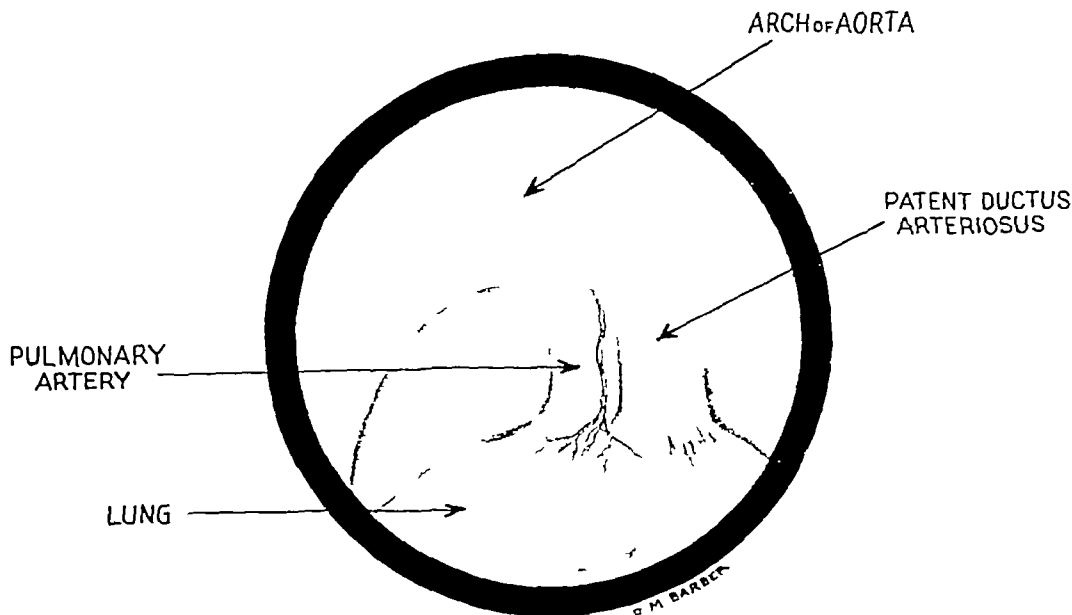


FIG 2—Case 4 View of aortic arch and lung root seen from above Distorsion of the aortic arch is due to the proximal part to the left being closer to the telescope than the other end

very suggestive murmur, to attempt to exclude a patent ductus by means of thoracoscopy Accordingly, a left pneumothorax was induced and a thoracoscope introduced by a posterior approach in the 4th left interspace close to the scapula with the child lying on her left side This gave a good view of the hilus, and showed a large vessel underneath the aortic arch in close contact with it (Fig 2) It was, however, difficult at the time to establish whether this was a patent ductus or the pulmonary artery Its apparent origin from the anterior surface of the aortic arch strongly suggested a ductus and in the light of further experience we are now convinced that this was so Meanwhile the

A left pneumothorax was induced with 400 ml of air and the thoracoscope was inserted immediately, using the anterior approach in the 2nd left interspace in the midclavicular line An excellent view was obtained with the direct and also with the right-angled telescope The coarctation was seen to be about a quarter of an inch long and slightly less in its outside diameter The transverse aortic arch was dilated Dilated subclavian and internal mammary arteries were clearly visible (Fig 3) Unexpectedly a patent ductus arteriosus was seen arising close to the beginning of the coarctation clearly separated from the pulmonary artery by a gap and having a lymph gland overlying it A small

vascular leash crossed over the ductus arteriosus. The vagus nerve, flanked by small arteries, hooked underneath and disappeared behind the hilus. The objective lens of the telescope could be brought into contact with the duct and its impulse with no thrill was easily felt on the shank of the thoracoscope. This manoeuvre caused some discomfort to the patient. The ductus was wide and appeared to dilate aneurysmally with each pulsation. This patient is now awaiting operation, which seems imperative owing to risk of rupture of his aorta,

enlargement, no thrill. A soft machinery murmur was heard in the 2nd left intercostal space audible also at the vertebral border of left scapula in 2nd and 3rd interspaces. Blood pressure 150/60. Femoral pulse easily palpable.

A left pneumothorax was induced with 600 ml of air. The thoracoscope was introduced immediately through an anterior approach in the 2nd left intercostal space in the midclavicular line. A very blue pulsatile pulmonary artery was seen with an almost orange coloured ductus arteriosus rising

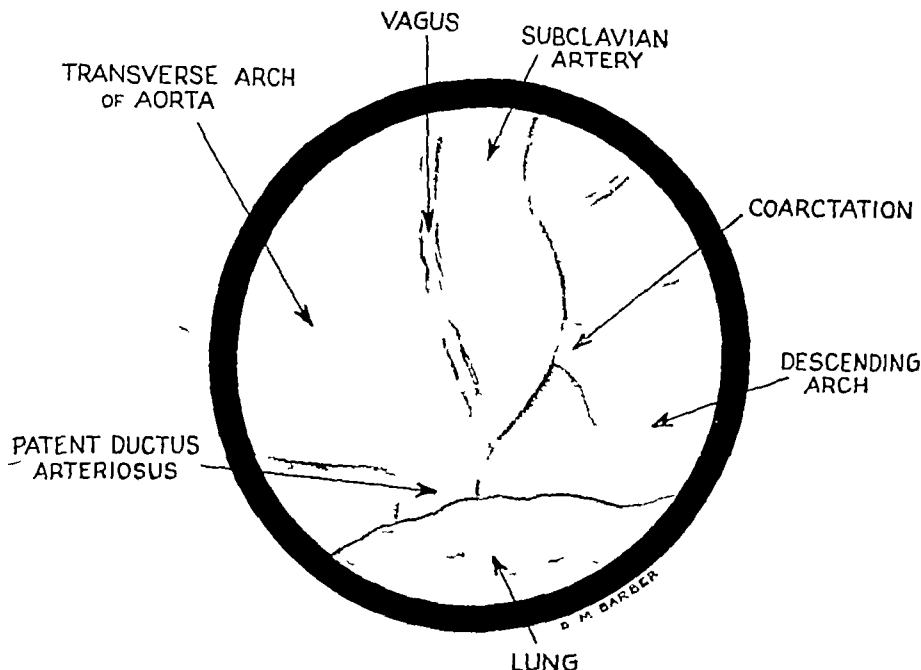


FIG 3—Case 5. The aortic arch seen from the front and above. The proximal aorta was greatly dilated and overlay the beginning of the coarctation. The vagus and its accompanying small vessels were more visible than usual.

the proximal part of which is very dilated. The ductus arteriosus will be ligated at the same time. At the moment he is undergoing treatment to control his epilepsy.

Case 6. A woman, aged 21, noticed no symptoms as a child, but a 'machinery murmur' was heard at the age of 9, and for this reason she was refused life assurance a few months ago. For the past three years she has been listless, tired, breathless on exercise, and dizzy on bending. She is due to get married shortly.

On examination, slight pulsation in the neck and second left intercostal space, no clinical cardiac

from the antero-inferior aspect of the aortic arch (Fig 4). Pulsation of the ductus was less than that of the pulmonary artery. A small arterial leash was visible on the surface of the ductus with two small lymphatic glands along side. The aorta appeared to be somewhat angulated just proximal to the ductus but was otherwise normal. Operation performed on the following day confirmed these findings but, in addition, revealed a very slight indentation of the aorta just proximal to the ductus at the site where an infantile coarctation occurs. A very marked systolic thrill was palpable in the ascending arch up to the site of the constriction. By auscultation before and after ligation and

division of the ductus we both confirmed the disappearance of the murmur after ligation. Two days after operation it had returned, and this was confirmed when seen again one month later.

Case 7 A European male, aged 19, complained of slight blueness and dyspnoea, both aggravated by exercise, occasional slight giddiness on exercise, and some palpitation. His mother noted cyanosis at birth, aggravated by crying. He had been difficult to rear, but had suffered from the usual children's

marked in the lips, tip of nose, lobes of ears, fingers, and toes. Eyes suffused and marked clubbing of fingers. No venous engorgement in the neck. Blood pressure, right arm 125/60, left arm 115/60. No abnormality or evidence of congestion found in the lungs. Apex beat forcible and diffuse within the mid-clavicular line and in the 5th and 6th intercostal spaces. At the base of the heart there was a mild thrill with a loud systolic murmur in the second left space; this murmur was localized, but a softer systolic murmur was heard over the rest of

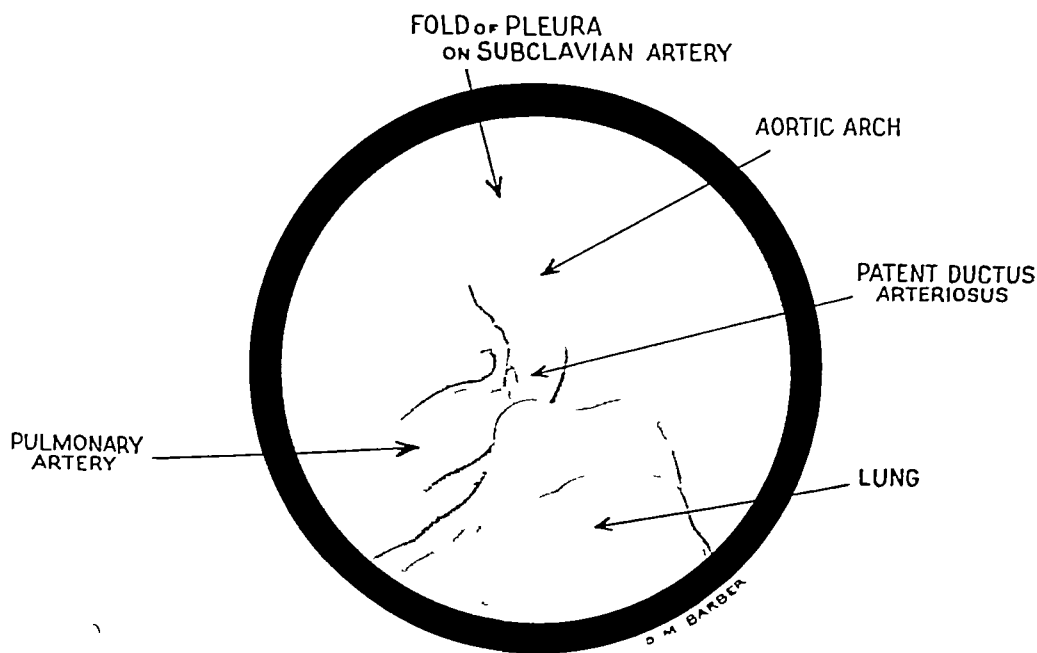


FIG 4—Case 6 Aortic arch and lung root seen from the front and above. The arch is more acutely angled than usual.

diseases, including whooping cough, without trouble. Walking was delayed until after the third year. No other members of the family suffered from congenital defects, his mother had been healthy during pregnancy and the labour had been normal.

Although early growth was retarded his height is 5 ft 11 in and weight 117 lb. His present activity is restricted to walking on the flat without hurrying. Cyanosis, which is minimal at rest, becomes pronounced on moderate exercise and during extremes of weather. Squatting is not marked, but he adopts a knee-chest position for comfort when fatigued. The parents think he has improved during recent years and are interested in the possibility of a Blalock-Taussig operation.

On examination, slight generalized cyanosis more

the præcordium. The second sound was closed and much accentuated in the 2nd left intercostal space. Radioscopy showed some cardiac enlargement predominantly right ventricular, although the left ventricle was also enlarged to a lesser degree. The aorta pulsated vigorously. In the antero-posterior view the pulmonary conus was slightly prominent and not concave, but the left oblique view suggested that the pulmonary artery was small. Despite the prominence of the lung markings no pulsation was seen. A barium swallow showed the aorta to arch downwards on the left side. The X-ray evidence favoured Fallot's tetralogy with a good collateral circulation through a patent ductus or bronchial arteries; it did not suggest Eisenmenger's complex. Venous catheterization of the heart (Dr van Lingen)

demonstrated the ventricular septal defect by passing the catheter through it, and analysis of blood samples suggested a right to left shunt. An overriding aorta was demonstrated with reasonable certainty by the fact that the oxygen content of the left ventricular blood was higher than that from femoral artery puncture. Failure to record pressures in the pulmonary artery or to obtain equal systolic pressures in the aorta and right ventricle precluded differentiation between Fallot's tetralogy and an Eisenmenger complex. The final diagnosis

colour and slightly tortuous, which entered the hilum as a network and almost hid the pulmonary artery. A few enlarged vessels were to be seen on the lung surface. In the angle between the subclavian artery and the curve of the arch another and thicker plexus of dark vessels was seen, presumably collaterals of the intercostal arteries dipping under the arch to enter the hilum. The vessels on the surface of the aortic arch numbered about 25, extending from the ascending aorta over to the descending, many more than would be expected from

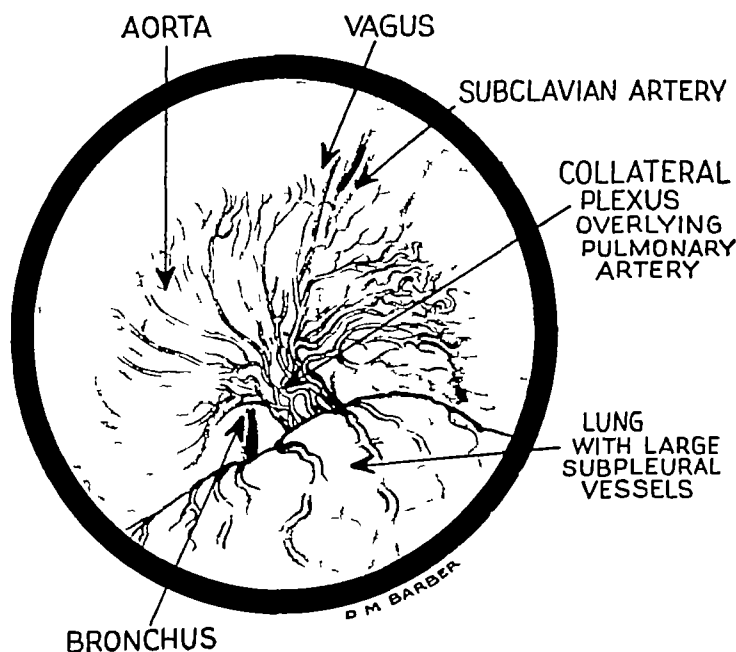


FIG 5—Case 7. The aortic arch seen from the front and above. Note the plexus of collateral vessels crossing the aortic arch to reach the hilum and overlying the pulmonary artery. The arrows indicating the vagus and the bronchus are a fraction too far to the left.

was Fallot's tetralogy with a possible patent ductus arteriosus or a collateral circulation to the lungs by bronchial arteries.

It was decided to submit this case to thoracoscopy in order to determine what form of collateral circulation was present and also, if possible, to take the pressure in the pulmonary artery by means of a needle introduced and withdrawn under direct thoracoscopic vision. A pneumothorax was introduced with 400 ml of air, and the thoracoscope inserted in the 2nd left interspace in the midclavicular line, the patient reclining at an angle of 45° to the horizontal. The aortic arch was immediately seen, and presented a remarkable picture (Fig 5) being crossed radially by numerous vessels, dark blue in

bronchial arteries alone and some seemed to come from the enlarged internal mammary artery. The pulmonary artery was small, and through another cannula, about an inch lateral to the first, a long needle was inserted into its small exposed part. The systolic pressure, read on a saline-citrate manometer, registered 20 cm above the manubrium (normal 25 cm). On removing the needle only a few drops of blood were seen and, when washed off with saline, did not reappear. Air was aspirated from the chest, the cannula removed and the wounds closed with one Michel's clip each. No untoward effects were noted by the patient, nor had any sensations been felt during the needling of the vessel.

The thoracoscopic finding confirmed that the collateral supply to the lung was good, though not provided by a ductus arteriosus. It also showed that, although the pulmonary artery was small, the extensive collaterals were enough to raise its pressure even at the hilum to four-fifths of the normal, and that it is easier to obtain the pulmonary arterial pressure by this method than by cardiac catheterization in cases of narrowing of the pulmonary infundibulum or valves.

On the reasonable assumption that a similar collateral supply was present on both sides of the aortic arch, it was thought wiser not to perform Blalock's operation on this patient.

ANÆSTHESIA AND TECHNIQUE

In adults, local anæsthesia is the anæsthetic of choice, with omnopon, one-third of a grain, given an hour before. With suitable doses of omnopon the same anæsthesia applies to children down to the age of 7 or 8 years. Below this age, various types of general anæsthesia are used with equal success, and we have successfully given intravenous nembutal, or cyclopropane and oxygen after a basic narcotic of seconal, or ether by the closed method after a similar basal narcotic. Insufficient narcosis causes difficulty from restlessness and irregular movements of the chest, as the child is too unconscious to co-operate and not deep enough to be quiet. Even trilene anæsthesia is fairly satisfactory in spite of the rapid breathing if a large enough pneumothorax is induced. In children of five to eight years, 400 to 500 ml of air can be introduced without distress.

The procedure of thoracoscopy need not be enlarged upon, as its technique is well known, but a few special points are worthy of mention. The pneumothorax is induced in the operating theatre, immediately before the operation, unless the lung is expected to be adherent, when the induction is done under an X-ray screen a day or two before. If there is widespread adhesion this method of investigation must of course be abandoned.

After trying various sites of introduction we have found the most satisfactory approach to be the anterior, in the second interspace in the mid-clavicular line, with the table tilted to an angle of about 45° in the counter-Trendelenburg position. A lateral tilt may be added, but is only occasionally necessary, if the greater part of the descending thoracic aorta is to be seen. For the visualization of a coarctation or of a patent ductus the direct telescope gives the best view, this should, however, be supplemented by the right-angled view, especially if the thymus or the internal mammary artery are to be seen. The subclavian artery in Fallot's tetralogy is better seen with a right-angled telescope but

the direct telescope should also be available in order to obtain as good a three-dimensional idea as possible. When investigating coarctation, it is as well to insert the trocar and cannula as nearly as possible in the centre of the intercostal space to avoid both an enlarged intercostal artery and its anterior branch running along the upper border of the rib below, in practice, we have not met with this complication.

Any thoracoscope with direct and right-angled telescopes can be used, the 9-mm Gullbring type as modified by the Genito-Urinary Co. has been very satisfactory, the 7-mm Coryllos type gives a smaller field which is its only disadvantage. Oxygen can be given during the investigation, but is usually unnecessary even with cyanotic children, unless a very large collapse of the lung has been produced. The major operation can be proceeded with immediately, as was done in Case 3, no harm seems to have accrued from this, nor is it to be expected.

DISCUSSION

We believe that thoracoscopy is a useful diagnostic procedure in certain congenital abnormalities of the great vessels and may give information that cannot be gained by X-ray examination even with the use of radio-opaque substances. The injection of these substances into the basilic vein often gives unsatisfactory results and when they are injected into the right auricle there is an appreciable risk to the patient's life, which is absent when the alternative procedure of thoracoscopy is employed.

As was only to be expected the hilar structures cannot always be visualized distinctly but, on the other hand, the gap to be bridged between the aortic arch and the pulmonary artery can be estimated fairly accurately. This was so in Case 3, where the pulmonary vessel was covered by a thick network of collateral veins and the artery could not be seen, though its position could be assessed with reasonable accuracy. In patent ductus arteriosus our experience indicates that an anterior approach gives a better view of the anatomy than a posterior and, while we would hesitate to claim that in cases in which no ductus can be seen its existence is excluded, we would emphasize that when a patent ductus is visualized it is unmistakable.

In Case 4, the posterior approach was used and, although a structure was seen originating from the anterior aspect of the aortic arch the limited field of vision made it impossible to be certain that we were not looking at the pulmonary artery itself. In the light of our later experiences with Cases 5 and 6 we now feel convinced that this was a patent ductus.

In childhood before the typical machinery murmur of patent ductus has developed there seems to be

some value in thoracoscopy to differentiate it from other conditions, especially auricular septal defect. This difficulty was noted by Taussig (1947) who stated "in infancy there is nothing in this age group to differentiate this murmur from the systolic murmur associated with the patent ductus arteriosus or one caused by ventricular septal defect." There appears to be a place for thoracoscopy here. If the ductus is short it is more difficult to see than if it is long, and a "keyhole" ductus is almost certainly invisible.

The arch of the aorta can be viewed clearly and in coarctation the constriction can be seen and its extent estimated, one can also make sure that the calibre of the vessel distal to the coarctation is such that it can be anastomosed to the proximal segment. These items of information are difficult and usually impossible to obtain by X-ray methods and angiography. Crafoord (1945) reported two cases that were found inoperable at thoracotomy, and others have undoubtedly occurred.

Blalock (1946 and 1948) stipulates that a low pressure must be found in the pulmonary arteries before his operation is indicated. In doubtful cases in which a catheter cannot be passed through the pulmonary valve a thoracotomy is necessary to obtain this reading. As is demonstrated in Case 7 it may be possible to insert a needle into the pulmonary artery under view through the thoracoscope and thus obtain the pressure reading. This may not always be possible owing to anatomical varia-

tions but we claim that if thoracoscopy is practised as a routine investigation in these cases some thoracotomies may be obviated.

It is not always easy to diagnose the condition of double aortic arch or to differentiate the various types of anomaly involved. Sweet *et al* (1947) describe a case in which the aortic arch was thought to be right sided, with a left-sided arch compressing the trachea, a left thoracotomy showed that the major arch was in fact left sided, but passed behind the oesophagus into the right thoracic cavity, where it was joined by a small right arch which produced the compression. A subsequent right thoracotomy enabled them to divide the right arch and effect a cure. Preliminary thoracoscopy in this type of case would enable a more accurate diagnosis to be made before operation, though here the procedure would have to be bilateral.

CONCLUSIONS

The technique of thoracoscopy as an aid to diagnosing certain congenital cardiac conditions has been discussed.

Seven cases are described in which this procedure was employed. The scope and limitations of this method have been briefly discussed.

We wish to thank Professor G. A. Elliott, Witwatersrand University, for permission to publish Case 7 and Dr S. Selby, Coronation Hospital, for Case 2.

We are indebted to Dr J. L. Lovibond for much helpful criticism, and to Miss D. M. Barber for the drawings.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE BRITISH CARDIAC SOCIETY

The THIRTEENTH ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING was held at Newcastle, Co Down, Northern Ireland, on Thursday, June 2, 1949

Chairman S BOYD CAMBELL

The Chairman took the Chair at 10 a m , 74 members and 17 visitors were present

PRIVATE BUSINESS

- 1 The minutes of the last Annual Meeting, having been published in the Journal (10, 293, 1948), were taken as read and confirmed
- 2 The balance sheet for 1948-49 was presented, having been audited and found correct by Bedford and Maurice Campbell The credit balance on April 30, 1949, was £85 18s 5d
- 3 Lovibond and Bruce Perry were elected members of the Council in place of Brown and Cotton (terms of office expired)
- 4 Fraser and Hope Gosse were elected *Extra-Ordinary Members*
- 5 The following Associate Members were elected as *Ordinary Members*
D R Cameron, W J Cooke, R J Duthie,
Frances Gardner, G W Hayward
- 6 The following new *Associate Members* were elected

J Benn, Bristol
W W Brigden, London
T H Crozier, Belfast
R Daley, London
Courtenay Evans, London
C J Gavey, London
G A Kiloh, Chester
R Kauntze, London
A Leatham, London
J W Litchfield, London
D C Muir, Hull

D A Robertson, London

A J Thomas, Cardiff

B G Wells, London

- 7 The following *Associate Members* were elected for a further period of three years

R Kempthorne

C G Parsons

D Lewes

W K Stewart

C Papp

W Stokes

- 8 The following alteration was made in Rule 22
"The subscription shall be fixed by the Council and shall not exceed two pounds a year for Ordinary Members and one pound for Associate Members, it shall become payable on the 1st day of March Failure to pay the subscription due within two years shall be considered equivalent to resignation"
- 9 It was decided that an Autumn Meeting should be held in 1949 and that the Council should determine the date and the place of the meeting
- 10 A memorandum by the Honorary Secretary on the International Council of Cardiology was considered It was agreed that it should be left to the Council of the Cardiac Society to nominate a delegate and a deputy to the projected meeting of delegates to be held in Paris in 1950 It was agreed, at the suggestion of Bain, that there should be adequate representation of the British Commonwealth at the meeting of delegates
- 11 A recent meeting of delegates to form a European Society of Cardiology was reported and some observations on this were made by the delegate of the British Cardiac Society, Evan Bedford At the suggestion of Chamberlain, the Council was asked to consider whether or not the German Cardiac Society should be allowed to join the European Society of Cardiology

DISCUSSION ON RHEUMATIC HEART DISEASE

Opening speakers

- (i) *Ætiology of Rheumatism*
 - (a) Public health A C Stevenson
 - (b) Pathology J H Biggart
- (ii) *Rheumatic Heart in Pregnancy*
 - (a) Clinical aspects Robert Marshall
 - (b) Pathology Florence McKeown

A C STEVENSON (*introduced*) There is need for further illumination of the epidemiology of rheu-

matic fever, at times too sweeping deductions are made from the rather scanty data referring to juvenile rheumatism and its sequelæ Certain limits can not safely be passed in interpreting the mortality figures of the Registrar General relating to acute rheumatic fever and heart disease Moreover, little information is available from the School Medical Service and from notifications and planned enquiries pursued over a long period from rheumatism clinics seem likely to be the most fruitful

source of information. Some figures are available relating to patients attending the clinic at the Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children.

Hypotheses concerning the relationship of streptococcal infections to juvenile rheumatism are based on scanty data. The conception of rheumatic fever as the end stage of a post-streptococcal state is interesting and attractive but does not appear to be based on much recorded observation. The evidence of familial susceptibility, as advanced most convincingly in recent years by Dr May Wilson, of Cornell, has not received sufficient attention and even if the proposition of hereditary transmission of susceptibility by a single autosomal recessive gene is difficult to support, there is overwhelming evidence of some inherited susceptibility.

J. H. BIGGART (*introduced*) In spite of much research, the ætiology of rheumatic fever remains undiscovered. Theories involve the streptococcus pyogenes, streptococcus viridans, a specific streptococcus, or viruses, but the evidence necessary to establish any one of these is still lacking. The work of the German School has produced the theory of an allergic mechanism as the responsible factor.

Difficulties arise in accepting such an allergic hypothesis—the granulomatous character of the essential lesion, the limitations of its distribution to the cardiovascular system, the specific sites for its occurrence, and its specific life-history. In addition to such purely morphological reasons for challenging the allergic hypothesis, there is the clinical suggestion of the importance of upper respiratory infection as a precursor of the rheumatic attack.

Study of the lesions produced in the rabbit by serum hypersensitivity shows that many of these difficulties can be overcome. The granulomatous lesion, the specific distribution, etc., are duplicated in the experimental animal. It is therefore suggested that no matter what the ætiological agent of rheumatic fever it produces the specific histological picture through an allergic mechanism.

ROBERT MARSHALL (*introduced*) In spite of the steady fall in maternal mortality during the past 15 years, heart disease was actually gaining a more prominent position as a cause of maternal deaths. During the quinquennium 1943–47, 743 women in England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland have died from heart diseases associated with pregnancy and childbirth. The commonest lesion was mitral stenosis, a fact borne out by the figures collected by Kenneth Hudson from the Royal Maternity Hospital, Belfast, where in the years 1937–48 there were 24,078 total admissions, with

an incidence of 1.8 per cent of heart disease, and a maternal death rate from this cause of 5.8 per cent, this compares with MacRae's findings in Queen Charlotte's Hospital, where the incidence was 0.8 per cent and the maternal death rate 3.1 per cent among 29,713 admissions. In Belfast 76 per cent of the deaths were emergency admissions, and 50 per cent occurred in connection with the patient's first pregnancy. These figures are comparable with those of Bramwell and Longson in Manchester, Carr and Hamilton in Boston, and Watson in New York.

The ætiological factor was rheumatic fever in 40 per cent of cases, and chorea in 12 per cent. A history of "ambulatory" pains was given in 15 per cent, but 22 had no history of relative disease. Mitral stenosis was diagnosed in 85 per cent of cases. It is of great importance to search carefully for this lesion during the ante-natal examinations, in order to eliminate admission to hospital of patients as "emergencies" with a high risk of death. As MacRae has stated, changes in the heart and circulation in pregnancy may cause breathlessness and palpitation, even in healthy patients, thus the cardinal signs of early congestive failure are rendered the more difficult to assess. Perhaps the most useful clinical hint is given by determining what number of pillows the patient requires at night. If signs of congestive failure are suspected during pregnancy, the patient should be admitted to hospital for a period of rest and observation, and all heart cases should be admitted at least a week before the date of expected confinement. While Caesarean section might still be advisable for cardiac, as well as obstetric, reasons, the practice of induction of labour for cardiological reasons has fallen into disrepute among obstetricians.

A series of 150 hospital in-patients during the years 1942–1946 has been reviewed. Of these, 8 are known to have died, and 36 have not yet been traced for various reasons. Of the first 100 patients reviewed, the ætiological factors and cardiac lesions corresponded closely with the larger series. Forty patients had been aware of cardiac symptoms during their first pregnancy, but 34 had developed such symptoms during their first pregnancy. Of these, 20 had suffered from rheumatism or chorea, but 14 had had no reason to fear heart disease, which was an additional argument for careful search for evidence of mitral stenosis at all ante-natal examinations. Five women had expressed the opinion that their health was better than before their confinements, 42 were thought to be unchanged, but 53 considered that their health had been impaired by pregnancy and parturition. It has to be remembered that it is not enough to nurse one's patient with mitral stenosis until her baby is safely

born, but that child-bearing is a prelude and a part of child-rearing

FLORENCE MCKEOWN (*introduced*) A post-mortem analysis is presented of 9 cases of rheumatic heart disease complicating pregnancy. In 3 of these the strain of pregnancy was the apparent cause of decompensation. The mechanism of heart failure in these cases is debatable, but stress must be laid on the lesions of the coronary arteries which result from previous attacks of rheumatic carditis and appear to play an important part in lowering the cardiac reserve.

In the remaining 6 cases a recrudescence of rheumatic fever, which was usually sub-clinical, was responsible for decompensation. Sub-clinical rheumatism is of importance in relation to pregnancy, but only by routine post-mortem examinations, which should include histological study of many blocks of the heart, can the occurrence of such attacks be recognized.

The opening papers were followed by a discussion to which contributions were made by Bramwell, East, Gilchrist, Schlesinger, Bain, Abrahamson, and Crozier.

SHORT COMMUNICATIONS

VENTRICULAR SEPTAL DEFECT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD

BY A. RAE GILCHRIST AND ROBERT MARQUIS
(*introduced*)

Although an isolated defect of the ventricular septum is recognized as one of the less serious congenital malformations of the heart, autopsy reports suggest that such a lesion is more frequently responsible for death in early childhood than is generally appreciated. Of Maude Abbott's 50 cases, 21 died at five years of age or under. In 110 consecutive cases of congenital heart disease coming to autopsy at under three years of age in the Edinburgh Royal Hospital for Sick Children, a defect of the ventricular septum, without other gross malformation of the heart, was found in approximately 25 per cent. In this group the predominant cause of death was an associated respiratory infection, but in a small proportion the death was primarily due to heart failure.

It is suggested that the differential diagnosis of congenital heart disease in young children must include the isolated ventricular septal defect, even when the disability is gross. In support of this contention 4 cases are presented. They conform to a general pattern of which the principal features are under development from an early age, an absence of cyanosis, a liability to respiratory infections, and a tendency to congestive heart failure. The heart is enlarged, a loud systolic murmur is maximal up the left sternal margin, and the pulmonary second sound is accentuated. The electrocardiographic tracings are bizarre but suggest hypertrophy of both right and left ventricles. Radiological examination confirms this enlargement and shows the pulmonary artery to be enlarged and the hilar shadows to be prominent.

Autopsy findings are given in two of the cases

presented. Both show defects of the ventricular septum, in one the defect replaces the membranous septum, in the other the anterior part of the muscular septum is also involved. The pulmonary artery is larger than the aorta and there is right and left ventricular hypertrophy in both specimens. Other changes are minimal.

APICAL DIASTOLIC MURMURS IN PERSISTENT PATENCY OF THE DUCTUS ARTERIOSUS

BY FRANCES GARDNER AND M. ZOEB
(*introduced*)

A diastolic murmur was audible at the cardiac apex in 9 patients with patent ductus arteriosus and was recorded phonocardiographically. In 5 patients the murmur could not be distinguished from the diastolic component of the Gibson murmur. In 4 a mid-diastolic murmur, resembling that of mitral stenosis was present, and in two of these the mid-diastolic murmur disappeared after ligation of the ductus, and in a third autopsy showed no stenosis of the mitral valve.

Phonocardiographic evidence suggested that the murmur did not represent transmission of the Gibson murmur to the apex. It was found that the maximum intensity of the Gibson murmur corresponded with the period of relative quiet between the second sound and the mid-diastolic murmur. Furthermore, it was found that respiration produced opposite effects on the two murmurs. The mid-diastolic murmur was increased during inspiration. This would be expected if it were dependent upon flow through the mitral valve. The Gibson murmur was diminished during inspiration.

It is concluded that the murmur belongs to the group of functional mid-diastolic murmurs and that it is not necessarily evidence of mitral stenosis in the presence of patent ductus arteriosus.

AN APPARATUS FOR INTERMITTENT VENOUS OCCLUSION

By J SHILLINGFORD (*introduced*)

Over ten years have elapsed since Collens and Willensky described their results of the treatment of peripheral vascular disease by intermittent venous occlusion. They showed that this method of treatment was capable of relieving pain, healing ulcers, and increasing walking capacity.

Since this time somewhat conflicting reports have been received as to the value of this method, but there seems little doubt that, clinically, a proportion of patients with peripheral vascular disease are greatly benefited by continued intermittent venous occlusion.

To date, there has not been generally available a simple, and portable, machine suitable for hospital and home use. An apparatus, which will shortly become generally available, has been designed and is now demonstrated. It is small in size, portable, silent in operation, with few moving parts, and can be worked by the patient himself with the minimum of instruction. Any convenient electric light point can be used as its source of power.

DIAGNOSTIC PROBLEMS IN CONGENITAL CYANOTIC HEART DISEASE

By VIOLET BREAKEY (*introduced*)

Two cases illustrating diagnostic problems in congenital cyanotic heart disease were discussed in detail.

- (1) pure pulmonary stenosis, and
- (2) pulmonary tuberculosis occurring in association with the tetralogy of Fallot.

The first case at autopsy showed a stenosis of the pulmonary valve with intact ventricular septum and widely patent foramen ovale. The significant clinical features distinguishing the case from the classical tetralogy of Fallot appeared to be

- (1) The age of onset of cyanosis was much later, i.e. not until five years,
- (2) dyspnoea was out of proportion to cyanosis, but attention was drawn to the fact that there were some patients with the tetralogy of Fallot who maintain a relatively high arterial oxygen at rest but rapidly become anoxæmic on the slightest exertion,
- (3) cyanosis appeared to vary even more than in the usual tetralogy of Fallot, and
- (4) the cardiac contour was strikingly different, with notable fullness of the pulmonary artery and of the right auricle. However, there was not the gross right ventricular enlargement that might be expected.

The choice of surgical procedure in such cases with a tissue-paper thin pulmonary artery was an important matter.

The importance of lung shadows in congenital cyanotic heart disease was mentioned. Rokitsansky stated in 1866 that pulmonary tuberculosis and pulmonary stenosis were incompatible. However, textbooks continued to teach that phthisis was a common cause of death in pulmonary stenosis, presumably arguing from the false premise that pulmonary tuberculosis was rarely seen in the vascular lung of mitral stenosis. It seemed now, however, that pulmonary tuberculosis was in fact exceedingly rare in the presence of pulmonary stenosis. In the second case a low pulmonary blood flow consequent on pulmonary stenosis resulted in an unusual picture—a relative absence of toxicity and progression during 12 months in spite of wide spread infiltration.

CARDIAC CATHETERIZATION IN CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

By G J AITKEN

The author presented tables illustrating the results obtained from cardiac catheterization in 20 cases of congenital heart disease. The findings agreed with those reported in other series. Particular reference was made to the relative proportion of successful catheterizations of the various cardiac chambers. An unusual course was not infrequent, the most common being into the coronary venous sinus and middle cardiac vein. Such courses were described.

Complications and technical difficulties were discussed. With one exception, venous spasm had been easily controlled. Abnormalities of rhythm were noted in 9 cases. In 8 this took the form of isolated extrasystoles occurring during intracardiac manipulation of the catheter. In the remaining one catheterization initiated a paroxysm of auricular fibrillation, which was terminated by quinidine when early signs of acute congestive failure appeared. Venous thrombosis, apart from a little about the point of entry of the catheter, has not been encountered. In one patient who died of congestive cardiac failure 14 days after catheterization, no evidence of intravascular trauma was detected.

Technical difficulties have been few and wholly concerned with the catheter. It has blocked on three occasions. One catheter was so flexible that control of the tip was not found possible. The outer plastic covering of another, apparently sound on introduction, split completely round its circumference within the lumen of the peripheral vein, during intracardiac manipulation of the tip by rota-

tion of the butt externally. Angled terminal openings in a set of catheters made withdrawal of blood from any venous radicle capricious. Specially ground adaptors have had to be made for some catheters to ensure an air-tight junction between the catheter and the syringe.

With suitable catheters and average skill, no technical difficulty need be anticipated in performing cardiac catheterization. An occasional failure is to be expected from a persistently abnormal catheter course. The danger of precipitation of a cardiac arrhythmia is real.

CARDIAC INFARCTION WITH PAIN CONFINED TO EFFORT

By A MORGAN JONES AND E J WADE

The authors have reviewed 98 consecutive cases of angina of effort. Eight have died or can not be traced, 90 have been re-interviewed to ascertain whether there has ever been any clinical episode suggestive of infarction. In 62 cases the pain was typical in every respect of angina of effort, being confined to exertion, invariably relieved by rest, and never lasting more than 15 minutes. Unless there was unequivocal evidence of infarction in the routine electrocardiograms, a full electrocardiographic investigation was made, including standard leads, unipolar limb leads, 6 unipolar præcordial leads, and 6 high unipolar præcordial leads. Infarction was diagnosed when two of the following changes were present in leads facing ventricular muscle: (1) typical QRS changes, (2) S-T changes, (3) T wave changes not explicable by ventricular enlargement. T wave changes alone were not accepted as proof of infarction.

In the 62 selected cases typical changes of cardiac infarction were present in 17 (28 per cent), and abnormal electrocardiograms suggestive of infarction were found in 12 (19 per cent). Abnormal cardiograms, not suggestive of infarction, were present in 5 cases (8 per cent), and in 28 cases (45 per cent) the cardiogram was within normal limits.

CORONARY ATTACKS IN GENERAL PRACTICE

By C PAPP

Coronary attack is a clinical term for persistent anginal pain, lasting half an hour or more, arising at rest and unresponsive to trinitrin.

Twenty seven patients seen in general practice and treated for coronary attacks were investigated, according to the gravity of the clinical symptoms and blood sedimentation rate (B S R), they were divided into three groups, of slight, moderate,

and severe coronary attacks. Electrocardiography was used for diagnosis but disregarded for assessment. It confirmed recent myocardial ischaemia in 20, and was inconclusive in 5, no records were obtained in 2 patients who died early.

Slight coronary attack 12 cases, no death, 7 confirmed, 5 unconfirmed by electrocardiogram, this latter group includes 4 with severe hypertension (3 women) and one with Buerger's disease. Pain was moderate, and relieved by single injection of morphia gr $\frac{1}{4}$ – $\frac{1}{2}$ and rarely recurred. The fall of blood pressure was short-lived and slight. Pyrexia was present only in a few. The B S R. was either normal from the onset or went back to normal within a fortnight. Shock and pulmonary congestion were absent and so were cardiac signs except for occasional ectopic rhythm during the attack.

Moderate coronary attack 5 cases, none fatal, and all confirmed by electrocardiogram. Pain was severe, and repeated injections of morphia were often required (total amount gr $\frac{1}{2}$ – $\frac{3}{4}$). Pain often recurred in a slighter form after the attack. Shock was slight or moderate, always relieved by morphia and never lasting longer than the pain. Blood pressure might fall considerably and return to normal only after a fortnight or more. Pyrexia was present for a few days. B S R. was back to normal at the end of three to four weeks. Cardiac and pulmonary signs were absent.

Severe coronary attack 10 cases, of these 7 died. Pain was often in three phases. The main attack was preceded by a slight coronary attack, often in the form of short and repeated attacks of angina at rest, responding to trinitrin. Rest in bed did not prevent the second phase, the main attack, which was characterized by extreme pain or by pain of 24 to 48 hours' duration. This was relieved by intravenous and subcutaneous morphia (total amount gr $\frac{3}{4}$ –1 with added atropine). The third phase, consisting of further attacks requiring morphia, often followed and was fatal in 3. Shock, severe and protracted (fatal in 4), was the leading symptom in this group, it produced fall of blood pressure to dangerous levels and permanent lowering in those who recovered, it was also responsible for pulmonary congestion and the high incidence of heart failure (5 cases). Pyrexia was high after shock had subsided. The return to normal of the B S R. was delayed by pulmonary complications. Cardiac signs such as persistently high pulse rate, triple rhythm, and apical systolic murmurs were precursors of congestive heart failure. Death was due to shock (4 cases), congestive heart failure (1 case), pulmonary embolus (1 case probable) and to coronary attack during sleep (1 case probable). Death

from shock occurred within hours, from congestive heart failure within months, or from further coronary attack at any time, the last could not be foretold by the electrocardiograph

Electrocardiographic signs were in broad agreement with clinical signs. In slight and moderate coronary attacks temporary or definite inversion of T in one or more leads was found. In severe coronary attacks, current of injury, Q waves, and later deep inversion of T were the prominent features. In a few discordant cases, clinical signs proved of greater prognostic value than the electrocardiogram.

Treatment was adapted to gravity. Slight and moderate coronary attacks required symptomatic treatment only. Rest in bed was reduced to two weeks in the slight and to three or four weeks in the moderate group, according to the return to normal of the BSR. Angina of effort was not provoked by the shorter rest and could not be prevented by extension of rest. The prognosis in slight and moderate coronary attack was favourable, and 16 out of 17 patients were active in profession, business, or household. In severe coronary attacks shock needed active treatment, oxygen tent might be life-saving and anti-coagulant treatment was a necessity, particularly if pulmonary complications were present. Dicoumarol was not used because of its dangers, heparin was safe without laboratory control. Intravenous theophylline-ethylene-diamine combined with ouabaine or oral digitalis was used at the first signs of failure. Recovery from a severe coronary attack was uncommon over the age of 60, those who survived in this series were of the younger age group, and only one of the three recovered without residual cardiac damage.

THE RADIOLOGY OF HEART FAILURE DUE TO CARDIAC INFARCTION

BY FREDERICK JACKSON (*introduced*)

Teleradiograms were taken before and after treatment in 8 cases of heart failure following cardiac infarction without hypertension. In 4 the heart was only slightly enlarged during failure. In the other 4 it was moderately enlarged, but returned almost to normal size with treatment. In 2, hydropericardium was suspected in these and confirmed once at necropsy. The enlargement persisted in the other 2 cases.

The special features of this variety of failure are these. It may occur in a heart that is almost normal in size. During failure the heart usually enlarges, but not greatly, and it may scarcely enlarge at all. With treatment the heart may return very nearly to normal size. The enlargement may be due

to hydropericardium, as was shown once post mortem. Raising of the diaphragm, pulmonary congestion, and hydrothorax are usual. They may develop or largely disappear in as short a time as one week, but generally take longer.

NON-RHEUMATIC INTERSTITIAL MYOCARDITIS

BY FLORENCE MCKEOWN (*introduced*)

The incidence of interstitial myocarditis has been investigated in routine post-mortem material. It was found to be present in 2 per cent of cases. There was a tendency for it to occur in association with certain infections with some frequency, and it has been observed in pneumonia, meningococcal septicaemia, diphtheria, and miliary tuberculosis.

The author discussed its relative importance in these conditions. A further group of isolated myocarditis was included, in which it was impossible to establish a correlation with any existing infection.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTRUMENTS DESIGNED FOR RECORDING ELECTROCARDIOGRAMS AND HEART SOUNDS

BY A MORGAN JONES AND M G SAUNDERS (*introduced*)

The determination and importance of the range of frequency response and of the duration of the time constant in electrocardiographs and cardiophonographs were discussed and illustrated by the characteristics of certain commercial recorders.

THE PHONOCARDIOGRAM OF AORTIC STENOSIS

BY A LEATHAM

Aortic stenosis produces a murmur of characteristic shape in the phonocardiogram both in the aortic and in the mitral areas. It often starts late in relation to the electrocardiogram and finishes well before the second sound, but sounds have high-frequency components simulating murmurs and it may be difficult to tell where one ceases and the other begins. In each of 20 subjects with aortic stenosis but without evidence of mitral valvular disease, the systolic murmur was small at its onset and rose to a peak in mid systole, then diminished in size until it was small or absent at the second sound. Though the mid-systolic accentuation was greatest in the aortic area it was always present in the mitral area. In most cases the second sound was followed by an early diastolic murmur.

In mitral valvular disease the systolic murmur was earlier and reached the second sound, there was no sharp mid systolic accentuation.

In a group of some 20 cases of pulmonary stenosis there was also a mid-systolic accentuation, but it was seldom so great as in aortic stenosis and the murmur usually reached the second sound

The phonocardiogram of aortic stenosis may prove of value in clinical diagnosis when the systolic murmur is loud at the apex. The shape described was found in all cases of aortic stenosis so far examined and was different from the shape in mitral valvular disease. Whether it is truly distinctive or whether it may be simulated in some other condition remains to be determined.

EXAMINATION OF THE HEART AT NECROPSY

By J. SHILLINGFORD (*introduced*)

A closer examination of the heart at necropsy than

the one usually carried out has been developed at the London Hospital during the past year.

The coronary arteries are injected with a radio-opaque substance, and an apparatus has been designed to facilitate this technique as a routine method of examination. The correlation between filling defects as shown on the X-ray and arterial lesions has been studied.

Cardiac chamber volume has been measured by means of wax casts, and a simple method of making these has been found. Hypertrophy of the muscle wall is shown by multiple measurements and a standard for normals has been established.

For the most part, the examination has been developed to correlate autopsy findings with those in life as shown by the multiple chest lead electrocardiogram.

ABSTRACTS OF CARDIOLOGY

Asymptomatic Heart Disease Observations Made during the Early Recruiting Period for Navy and Marine Enlistments. A S HYMAN *Amer J Med* 5, 351-364, Sept., 1948

Of 1900 boys and men examined before enlistment in the Navy or Marine Corps and referred to a cardiovascular specialist 350 were found to be suffering from some form of asymptomatic cardiovascular disease, as regards which the history was entirely negative. The ages varied between 17 and 51, average 26, the smallest age groups were those of 47, 49, 50, and 51 years with 3 cases each. Valvular heart disease was found in 169 (mitral insufficiency 93, mitral stenosis 41, aortic incompetence 22, aortic stenosis 9, congenital lesions 4), and hypertension in 89 (systolic pressure 150 to 170 mm Hg., 58, 170 to 190 mm., 25, 190 to 210 mm., 5, 210 to 220 mm., 1). It is emphasized that high blood pressure may develop without giving rise to any symptoms and that pathological signs start to develop with pressures exceeding 170 mm Hg. Arrhythmias were present in 55 (ventricular extrasystoles 18, auricular 6, nodal 2, and bifocal 1, tachycardia of or exceeding 110, 19, auricular fibrillation 6, complete heart block 2, and incomplete heart block 1). Cardiac hypertrophy was found in 26, of whom 22 had engaged in athletics (15 in more than moderate degree). This was the most common single factor found in this group. Premature arterial changes were found in 11. Only those in the group with premature contractions and 4 amongst the 26 with cardiac hypertrophy were accepted for service. The explanation for the absence of symptoms in these conditions in the examined group is discussed.

A Schott

Arterial Blood Pressure in Labour and the Puerperium D Y DARON *Akush Ginek*, No 5, 10-13, 1948

The variations in the blood pressure during normal labour were studied in 45 women. Systolic pressure in 37 at the beginning of labour was between 105 and 125 mm Hg., varying in the remainder from 130 to 155 mm. During the first stage systolic pressure tended to be higher in primiparae and younger women. During the second stage, contrary to expectation, systolic pressure changed little, save in rapid labours. In most cases the systolic pressure rose in the third stage (in 30 by 15 mm., in 7 by 20 to 40 mm.), this rise was most marked in rapid labours and in younger women. After placental expulsion, systolic pressure returned in 36 forthwith to normal, return being slower after longer labours.

Diastolic pressure in 35 women exceeded 70 mm Hg at the onset of labour. During the second stage in most cases it either rose by 10 to 20 mm or remained unchanged. During the third stage it rose still further,

only to fall again in most cases after expulsion of the placenta. Diastolic pressure was highest in older women and in more rapid labours. When labour was prolonged there was usually a sharp rise soon after expulsion of the foetus.

Changes in the character of the pulse are described. The work of the heart was also studied by the use of Liliensand coefficient. The cardiovascular system was not subjected to undue stress in either the first or the second stage, the greatest burden being placed on it after expulsion of the foetus by the sudden alteration in intra abdominal pressure.

S S B Gilder

An Analysis of Certain Factors Associated with the Production of Experimental Dissection of the Aortic Media, in Relation to the Pathogenesis of Dissecting Aneurysm J S ROBERTSON and K V SMITH *J Path Bact* 60, 43-49, Jan., 1948

The pressure required to produce experimental dissection of the aorta by forcing water through a needle into the media was measured in 42 adults of different ages and both sexes. In all cases this pressure was far higher than the blood pressure even in severe hypertension. These results (which were well analysed statistically) support the view that aortic dissection only occurs in cases of marked medial degeneration.

D M Pryce

Thrombosis as a Factor in the Pathogenesis of Aortic Atherosclerosis J B DUGUID *J Path Bact* 60 57-61, Jan., 1948

Recent thrombotic deposits were found in the aorta in 19 of 50 cases post mortem. Whilst most frequent over atheromatous ulcers of older subjects they were also found in association with early atheromatous streaks and even where the wall appeared normal. Often the deposits were superimposed on earlier deposits. Transitional appearances indicated that the deposits were gradually transformed into intimal thickenings which would ordinarily have been regarded as purely arteriosclerotic. The author has previously shown the importance of this process in the coronary arteries.

D M Pryce

The Application of Oximetry and Cardiac Catheterization to the Diagnosis of Congenital Heart Disease H B BURCHELL *J Iowa med Soc*, 38 364-368 Aug 1948

The diagnosis of congenital heart disease by the traditional methods is notoriously difficult. Apart from those cases with such typical features as the murmurs of a patent ductus arteriosus and the tremendous pulsa-

tions of the hilar vessels in atrial septal defect, so-called pathognomonic signs are rare. The author describes the use of the cardiac catheter together with a photoelectric oximeter in the investigation of these cases. The oximeter permits recognition of degrees of unsaturation of arterial blood with oxygen which are insufficient to cause recognizable cyanosis. In Fallot's tetralogy the degree of pulmonary stenosis may be estimated by the extent of the fall in arterial oxygen saturation during exercise. In the most severe cases this may fall as low as 20%. Those patients who cannot maintain an arterial saturation of at least 70% at complete rest are in a very precarious condition.

Catheterization of the heart involves accurate radiological studies of (1) the position of the catheter tip together with observations on (2) intracardiac pressure, and (3) variations in oxygen saturation of the blood in the various positions. Without all these it is impossible to decide the exact location of the catheter tip within the heart owing to the great deviations from normal pressures which may take place in the presence of complex congenital defects. The oximeter may be used for rapid determination of oxygen saturation of any sample of blood withdrawn through the catheter. Pressures within the heart are recorded with sufficient accuracy for clinical purposes by means of strain-gauge manometers.

The recognition of an atrial septal defect is one of the easiest examples of the use of this method. Its presence may be determined by the ease of passage of the catheter through the defect into the left auricle or pulmonary veins and also by the finding of arterialized blood in the right atrium. Similarly, arterialization of blood in the pulmonary artery is practically diagnostic of patent ductus arteriosus. High right intraventricular pressures with normal pulmonary artery pressures are always suggestive of pulmonary stenosis. The author points out that the calculations used by Bing for the assessment of pulmonary blood flow and other factors need further critical re-evaluation on account of various inaccuracies which may arise in the techniques used. He also points out that the clinical features of the various congenital lesions often permit of diagnosis with fair certainty, and cardiac catheterization is of most value in atypical cases. Angiocardiography is also of immense value in the study of such problem cases.

J McMichael

Hoarseness in Heart Disease J L THOMPSON and A D KISTIN *Ann intern Med* 29 259-273, Aug., 1948

The authors were able to find only 30 reported cases of left recurrent laryngeal nerve palsy associated with heart disease in which necropsy findings were recorded. Dilatation of the pulmonary artery was the prime cause of the nerve injury. They describe 2 cases of their own in which the sole initial complaint was hoarseness.

The literature is reviewed at some length and the various explanations of the aetiology are given. It had been suggested that the combination of heart disease and recurrent laryngeal paralysis is so infrequent that their association is purely coincidental; many cases remain unexplained. In mitral stenosis paralysis of the nerve

has been found ten times as often as in hospital patients in general, and, were the association coincidental, the right and the left nerve ought to be equally affected. No case is recorded of paralysis of the right nerve alone and where both nerves were held to be affected there has been no necropsy. Attempts have been made to link the paralysis with the presence of the ligamentum arteriosum as it passes backwards from the left pulmonary artery to the aorta, but the evidence is contradictory. In most of the cases studied pulmonary artery dilatation was a common factor, but the fact remains that while such dilatation is frequent, associated laryngeal nerve paralysis is rare.

Case I is illustrated by a skiagram of the right oblique view with barium filled oesophagus, photomicrographs, and photographs of the dissection. In these photographs the anatomical relations of the various parts are seen with clarity. In Case II the angiocardiograms are reproduced with explanatory diagrams. Donald Hall

The Effect of Exercise on the Electrocardiogram [Master "Two-step" Test] in the Diagnosis of Coronary Insufficiency D UNTERMAN and A C DEGRAFF *Amer J med Sci*, 215, 671-685, June, 1948

A standard two-step exercise test (Master *Amer J med Sci* 1929, 177, 223) was used and electrocardiograms (leads I, II, III, and CF4) were taken as quickly as possible afterwards. The criteria for a positive test, which were adopted as more marked than the changes seen in 31 normal controls, were as follows: (1) A depression of the RS-T junction of more than 1 mm in the standard leads or more than 0.75 mm in CF4; this lead being standardized at half the usual sensitivity. (2) Conversion of an upright T wave to an isoelectric or inverted T wave in leads I, II, or CF4 or of a diphasic or inverted T to upright.

The test was tried in 91 patients with various forms of heart disease, with positive results in 31. Positive results were obtained in 48% of patients with typical angina, 24% of those with atypical symptoms and in 28% of those without pain. Ten patients experienced anginal pain during the exercise and in 7 of these the test was positive. The influence of food, digitalis, and recent acute illness is also considered.

[The control group in this series consisted of younger patients than those with heart disease. The patients with heart disease are classified on an aetiological basis only, so that the possible influence of cardiac enlargement or failure cannot be determined.] J W Litchfield

The Immediate Sequelae of Myocardial Infarction: Their Relation to the Prognosis A SELZER *Amer J med Sci*, 216, 172-178 Aug. 1948

A study of 130 cases of recent myocardial infarction coming to necropsy was made in an effort to determine the immediate cause of death. In 35 the patient was previously so ill that the myocardial infarction might be regarded as a terminal event. In the other 95 there was little limitation of activities before the infarction. These

patients were divisible into four groups. In the first, consisting of 28 patients, death was due to progressive circulatory failure, with or without shock. The 24 patients in the second group died suddenly 24 hours or more after the infarction and presumably from a fatal arrhythmia. In the third group were 32 patients who died as the result of some complication demonstrable at necropsy—rupture of the ventricle (8), embolic phenomena (15), the other complications were not directly connected with the infarction. The remaining 11 patients died of miscellaneous causes—recurrent coronary occlusion (5), prolonged illness for which no cause could be found (4), and possibly digitalis poisoning (2). No correlation was found between the age of the patient, the severity of coronary arteriosclerosis, the size of the infarct, the presence of old scars or cardiac hypertrophy, the course and duration of the illness or the frequency of complications. Thus, a considerable number of patients with myocardial infarction die, not from cardiac insufficiency, but from serious arrhythmias, thrombo-embolic phenomena, and shock. *C. Bruce Perry*

Electrocardiographic Changes in Diphtheria S. S. ALTSHULER, K. M. HOFFMAN and P. J. FITZGERALD
Ann. intern. Med., 29, 294–305, Aug., 1948

This is a study of 600 patients in the American Occupied Zone of Germany between September, 1945, and December, 1946. All the cases reported were confirmed bacteriologically. 26 being examples of cutaneous diphtheria. The average age of the patients was 23 years and 37 were females. An electrocardiogram was taken as soon as diphtheria was suspected clinically or a positive culture obtained, thereafter weekly or more often if thought necessary. Those with severe or prolonged cardiographic changes were invariably returned to the U.S.A. for convalescence. The period of observation for patients with cardiographic changes varied between 8 and 23 weeks.

Of the 600 patients 143 (24%) presented cardiographic changes at some time during their stay in hospital. By far the most common abnormality was low voltage or negativity of the T wave in two or more leads (108 cases), next in frequency, but far behind, was prolongation of the P–R interval (11 cases) and depression of ST segments in two or more leads (10 cases). All cardiograms were checked independently and no borderline curves were included. Of the T wave changes 30 involved leads II and III, 28 all four leads, and 25 leads I, II, and III. Slight slurring and splintering of the QRS segment were common, but significant prolongation was seen only in the 2 patients with right bundle branch block. Low voltage of QRS in all leads was present in 3 patients only. Electrocardiographic changes were met with for the first time after the fourth week only in 5 of the 600 patients examined. [The authors state that patients with persistent abnormalities in all leads usually had manifested clinically severe infections, but in the summary severity of clinical infection and severity and duration of electrocardiographic changes in diphtheria cannot be correlated.] It is pointed out that this study does not

support the view that prolongation of the P–R interval is the most common abnormality in diphtheria.

The two patients with heart block had been treated for haemolytic streptococcal sore throat and discharged completely asymptomatic, to duty within the week. One was readmitted in 6 days, the other in 8, both in cardiovascular collapse. In the 2 fatal cases T waves were negative in all leads. In 4 patients phasic alternation between normal and abnormal electrocardiograms was found.

The paper is well illustrated by serial cardiograms and the authors consider that in diphtheria, alike in the acute stage and in convalescence, the electrocardiogram is essential to the evaluation of the physical state of the patient.
Donald Hall

Dicoumarol in Experimental Myocardial Infarction
G. V. LEROY and L. A. NALESKI *J. Lab. clin. Med.*, 33, 961–971, Aug., 1948

At first dicoumarol was used only for patients who had already experienced thrombo-embolic complications of cardiac infarction—either repeated episodes of multiple thrombosis in different areas of the coronary tree or repeated phenomena elsewhere, for example, in the lungs. Later it was given purely prophylactically against such complications.

The incidence of thrombo-embolic complications in recent myocardial infarction is difficult to determine as the data are conflicting; the figures given by different authors vary from 9.9 to 45%. Even the incidence of mural thrombosis of the endocardium is difficult to ascertain, being stated variously as between 17 and 83%. However, it is evident that thrombo-embolism is an important complication of myocardial infarction. The authors state that in all the reports of results of anti-coagulant therapy there has been an apparently significant reduction in the number of thrombo-embolic complications and in the general mortality rate, but they point out that there has been as yet no report which includes suitable controls.

The chief hazard with anticoagulant therapy is the development of a haemorrhagic state and it is essential that treatment be controlled by prothrombin determinations. As the early stage of infarction is characterized by hyperaemia and haemorrhage the authors thought it possible that the use of anticoagulants might accentuate the haemorrhagic stage and thus prolong resolution of the infarct. Myocardial infarction was produced in 25 dogs by ligation of the anterior descending branch of the left coronary artery. Fifteen were given dicoumarol in amounts similar to those used in the treatment of patients with recent infarction. The animals were killed at intervals of 5 to 22 days. There were slight differences between the control group and the dicoumarol treated group, but the authors state that there was no evidence that the altered coagulability of the blood affected the extent or healing of infarcts. Serial electrocardiograms showed no significant difference between treated animals and controls. No deleterious influence on healing was demonstrated.
S. Oram

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